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An Englishman looks at

CHILE:

ITS LAND AND PEOPLE

THE HISTORY, NATURAL FEATURES,
DEVELOPMENT AND INDUSTRIAL RESOURCES
OF A GREAT SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLIC

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LONDON:
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34, MAIDEN LANE, STRAND, W.C.

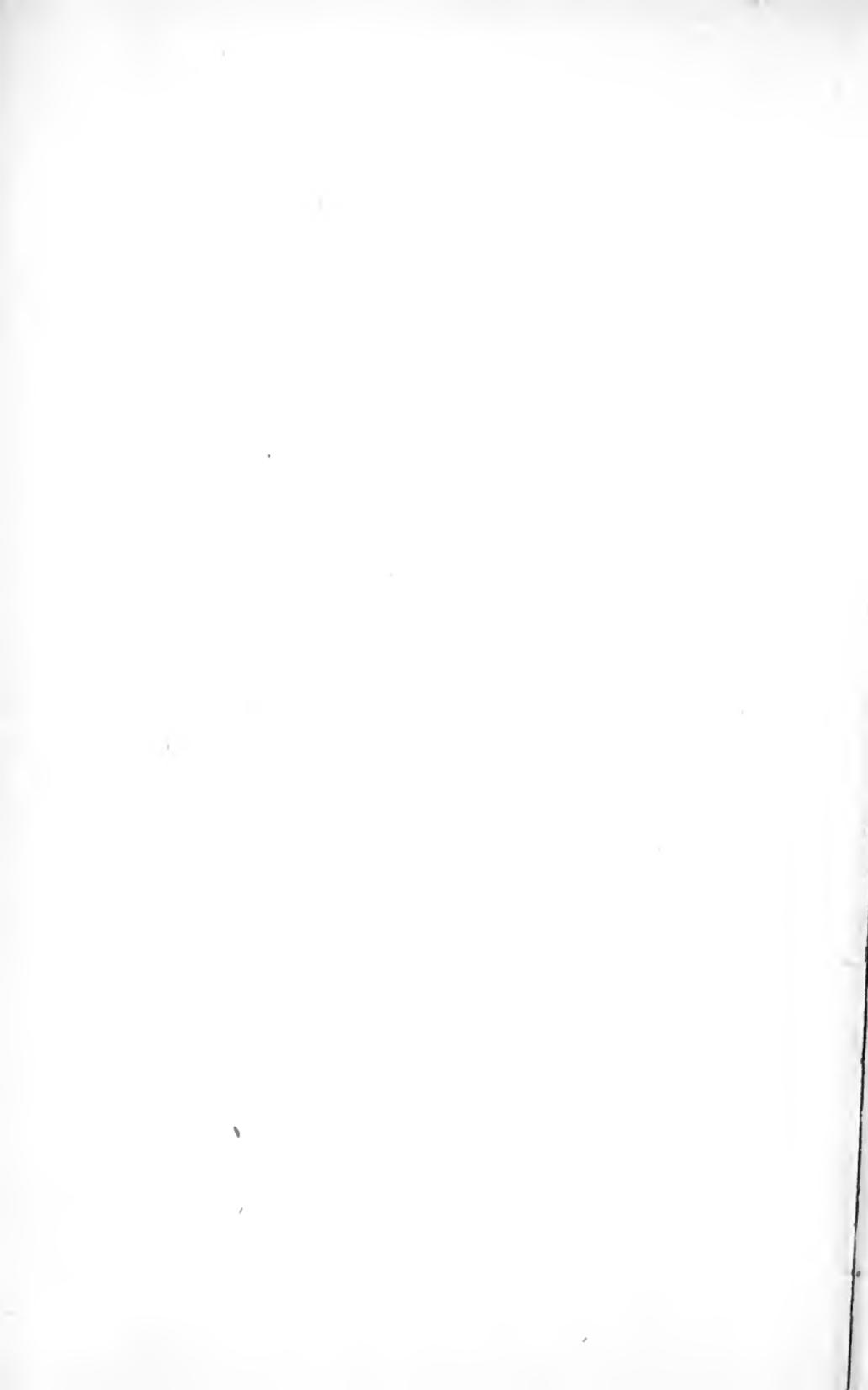
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“ We in Great Britain are only beginning to realise how rapid has been the development in recent years of the greater countries in the vast continent, how remarkable their growth in population and wealth, how large the natural sources of prosperity in them which still remain to be turned to full account. In particular, Chile, Argentina, and Brazil are already potent factors in the economic world of to-day, and must become more and more significant for the movements of commerce everywhere.”—

VISCOUNT BRYCE.



PREFACE.

But a few years ago, a railway, constructed by British engineering skill, pierced the summit of the mighty Andes, beneath the Uspallata Pass, and so, for the first time, united Chile directly, by land, with the Atlantic Ocean. That was an event of national importance to the country with which these pages deal. But it has been followed by another, compared with which the completion of the Transandine Railway was but a small thing. Only a short time ago, the thin barrier of natural rock, that still separated the waters of the Atlantic from the newly made channel of the Panama Canal, was blasted by a dynamite charge. Before many days have passed, a similar operation will have been performed at the Pacific end of the channel. Then, henceforth, the Americas will no longer divide the waters of two oceans. Atlantic and Pacific will have been made one—and, for the countries washed by the western waters, a new era is inaugurated. These events are my justification for an unpretentious book, which, while it renews in me memories of much generous hospitality and of many happy Chilean days, may yet prove interesting to the general reader, to the occasional tourist, and also, I hope, to that shrewder class of English business man, who with eyes open to the possibilities of a land of unbounded promise, will not be content to leave uncontested its exploitation to either his American or German competitor.

In the preparation of this work, valuable assistance has been rendered by Mr. Percy Allen, who has supplied much of the historical material, and has devoted great care to passing the proofs through the press.

F. J. G. M.



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CHILE:
ITS LAND AND PEOPLE





ARTILLERY BARRACKS, SANTIAGO

CHILE

ITS LAND AND PEOPLE

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTORY

Chile "the land all men speak well of"—Its situation—Pizarro and Peru—Almagros "March of despair and death" in 1535—They arrive in Chile and retreat—Valdivia's Expedition—Lopez Val's account of the Araucanians—Towns built by the Spaniards—The Indian war—Chile a Kingdom—The husband of Mary Tudor of England its First King—Inez de Saurez—The Indian Rising—Lautaro and Caupolican—Defeat of the Spaniards—Torture of Valdivia and Caupolican—Failure of the Spaniards to subdue the Indians—The coming of the Jesuits—Their influence on civilisation.

For upwards of four centuries, every traveller, explorer or business man who has visited that State of South America, known as the Republic of Chile, has lacked words to express his admiration for the country, its climate and resources, as well as the energy and courtesy of its inhabitants.

Chile is situated on the western coast of South America, and stretches approximately from parallel 18° south latitude, to Cape Horn, the southernmost extremity of the Continent, or roughly speaking in 56° south latitude. Peru bounds it on the north, Bolivia and Argentina on the east, and on the west and south its shores are washed by the mighty waves of the unknown South Sea of the early navigators, the great Pacific Ocean. The coast line of the country is 2,629 miles in length, while its average breadth is but 100 miles!

Chile owes its discovery, like so many of the South American States, to the greed for gold on the part of the Spanish adventurers of the sixteenth century. In the year 1531, when the Spanish legions, under Francisco de Pizarro, occupied Peru, the native Indians groaned under the cruelty of their conquerors, who were determined to "get rich quickly," regardless of the means. Unfortunately

the deeds of a small section of rapacious men that have come down to us through the centuries, have given the impression that the national characteristic of the Spanish and their descendants in South America is cruelty, when dealing with the native races. This impression is in many respects an unfair one. The Emperor Charles V. and Philip II. issued numerous decrees for the protection of the aborigines. Pope after pope ; Paul III. in 1531, Urban VIII. in 1659, Clement XI. in 1706, and Benedict XIV. in 1741, as well as the Bishops of the New World in Council, enjoined, upon all Christian men, the duty of protecting the Indians, and treating them with justice. No country, as a State, did more to protect the native races from the inhumanity of their conquerors than Spain. Unfortunately for the Indians, greed was more powerful than government, in those distant lands, and it is as unfair to blame the Spaniards, as a people, for the crimes committed by the rapacious gold seekers and adventurers, as it would be to stigmatise the English as being a nation of barbarians, on account of the savageries of the West Indian pirates of the same period, or the more recent Australian bush-rangers. Since its inception the Republic of Chile has been characterised by its humanity to the Indians.

In Peru, as it is a matter of common historical knowledge, the natives were treated with the grossest barbarity, by Pizarro and his impatient gold seekers. Certain Indians, of an imaginative turn of mind, realising that they could not defeat the Spaniards in warfare, conceived the idea that their foes might be induced to leave Peru, if they could be persuaded that mighty deposits of the precious metal existed elsewhere.

Accordingly, they spread rumours, that to the south of Peru, in the country of Chile, gold existed in great abundance, and so easy of access that anyone could rapidly become possessed of an enormous fortune. These rumours were perfectly true, as for upwards of a century the Incas had received a tribute of perhaps a million sterling from the subject natives of Chile in gold dust and ingots. As the

Indians expected, the covetousness of the Spaniards was aroused, and in the year 1535 one of Pizarro's ablest 7 lieutenants, Don Diego de Almagro, started with five hundred followers and 10,000 Peruvian Indians to act as bearers and guides to search for this fabulous wealth. At the head of his little band, he, like a Hannibal of the New World, crossed the Andes by a route which to this day is almost impassable in the winter months. On through the eternal snows, pierced with the bitter winds that sweep the Andes, suffering from hunger, cold, and still more from the horrible agony of the *puna*, or mountain sickness, this valiant band of Spanish adventurers pursued their "march of despair and death" as it was termed.

Hundreds of Peruvian Indians, who had been utilised to carry the baggage of the Spaniards, perished on this dreadful journey, and the superstitions of the Spaniards were aroused by the condors, the vultures of the Andes, that poised over the army like black omens of death. At length, after enduring almost incredible sufferings for the period of six months, with a force diminished by one half, Almagro reached the spot where the city of Copiapó now stands.

By this time Almagro and his men realised that they had been tricked by the subtle Peruvians. Although they were greeted with manifestations of friendship by various Indian tribes, who regaled them with potatoes, maize and fruit, which the Indians cultivated in great quantities, the natives professed to have no knowledge of gold. Almagro responded to these advances with acts of senseless and barbaric cruelty; but the Chilean Indians, though threatened with torture and death resolutely refused to disclose the location of the mines.

At length Almagro resolved to return to Peru, and before leaving, this stern, cruel warrior, made a speech to his soldiers, which reveals another and a nobler side to his nature. It must be remembered that his expedition, like those of most of the early Spanish adventurers, was fitted out at the expense of the leader, and the soldiers

were advanced the necessary funds to purchase horses, arms and provisions. "I have observed your troubles on account of what you owe me," he said; "As it has not been God's will that in this expedition either you or I should prosper, let us give thanks to God for all he does, and submit ourselves to His will. I return rich in the assurance that you all know, that if we had found much gold and great treasure, I would with much good will have divided everything amongst you. I tell you this by my faith, that my intention never was, is not, and never will be to ask you for what you owe me, and I have only kept the papers that you signed in order that I might give you, when you should become rich, the statement of your indebtedness to me." With these words he tore up the papers and released his companions from all debt to him.

Evidence of the richness of the mines of Chile, however, was rapidly accumulating. Almagro's successor in the conquest of Chile was Don Pedro de Valdivia.

Let Lopez Val, who wrote in 1587, tell the story, as printed in Hakluyt's "Principal Navigations":—

"Now this captaine Don Diego de Almagro being slaine in the warres of Peru, another called Don Pedro de Valdivia marching into Chile with four hundrette horses, easily conquered that half of the countrey which was subject to the kings of Peru. For knowing that Peru being the chief countrey of their Emperour, was overcome by the Spaniards, they also immediately yielded their land unto them. But the other halfe as it was the richest and most fruitfulest part, so God had peopled it with the most valiant and furious people, in all America.

"The province which they inhabite, called El Estado de Arauco is but a small province about twenty leagues in length, and is governed by ten principal men of the countrey, out of which ten, they chuse the valientest man for the generall in the warres. The Kings of Peru in times past could never conquere this part of Peru, nor yet any other kings of the Indians." By this it will be seen that Don Pedro de Valdivia, and his four hundred

horse, had to face what modern Americans term a "Big proposition."

Valdivia, however, determined to overcome the Araucanians by working on their superstitions. These savages were well armed with pikes, halberds and bows, and the Araucanians, according to the early Spanish historians, fought with discipline as well as valour.

According to Lopez Val, "the Spaniards sent word to them by other Indians, saying that they were the children of God, and came to teach them the word of God, and that therefore they ought to yielde themselves unto them: if not, they would shoot fire among them, and burne them. These people, not fearing the great words of the Spaniards, but desiring to see that which they had heard reported, met them in the field, and fought a most cruell battell: but by reason of the Spaniards great ordinance and calivers, they were, in the end, put to flight.

"Now these Indians thinking verily that the Spaniards were the children of God, because of their great ordinance which made such a noise, and breathed out such flames of fire, yielded themselves unto them.

"So the Spaniards having divided this province made the Indians to serve their turnes for getting of gold out of the mines, which they enjoyed in such abundance, that Hee which had least, had 20,000 pezos"—upwards of £1,000—"but Captaine Valdivia himself had 300,000 pezos—upwards of £15,000—by one yeere."

"The fame of these riches in the end was spread as farre as Spain," says Lopez Val, with the result that a number of Spanish adventurers set sail for Chile bringing with them, horses, cattle, sheep, dogs, and European seeds and plants. To avoid the journey over the Andes they came via the straits of Magellan, and they founded six towns, thus enumerated by Lopez Val: "Villa Nueva de la Serena, called by the Indians, Coquimbo; the second Santiago, or Mapocha; the third, La Concepcion, or Peno; the fourth La Imperial; the fifth Valdivia; and the sixth La Villa Rica."

Chile's progress was at first rapid. The Araucanian Indians, for the time being were cowed, and Spanish adventurers poured into the new El Dorado. A little later, Chile was elevated into the rank of a kingdom. The cause of this was the projected marriage of the Emperor's son, who afterwards became Philip II., to our own Queen Mary! Her advisers held, that as she was a reigning queen in her own right, her husband must be a reigning king; so the future husband of Mary Tudor was crowned King of Chile.

When Valdivia founded the city of "Santiago, de la Nueva Estremadura" he called it "Santiago" after Spain's patron saint, and "Estremadura" after his birth place; it became the centre of Chilean history at that period. A small chapel was built in the public square, called then, as now, the "Plaza de Armas" and a municipal council was instituted on the Spanish model. The next few years of Chilean history are stories of war and bloodshed. Valdivia determined to destroy the warlike power of the Araucanians, who maintained their independence in the impenetrable southern forests, and invaded their country with his armed force of Spaniards and friendly Indians, leaving but fifty men and one woman, Doña Inez de Suarez, to guard Santiago.

A number of Indian chiefs were imprisoned in Santiago, as hostages for the collection of gold by their followers. Knowing the weakness of the garrison, six thousand Indians suddenly attacked and set fire to the town. Doña Inez, convinced that the attack was being made for the purpose of liberating the chiefs, ordered them to be put to death, and their heads thrown into the midst of their attacking followers.

These novel missiles caused the savages to pause, when suddenly Doña Inez charged them at the head of the Spanish cavalry.

Giving way to their superstitious fears of mounted men, the Indians broke and fled, and the garrison was saved, although the city was for the time being destroyed.

It was in 1530 and the two following years that Valdivia pursued his career of conquest, and built the towns in the Araucanians' country enumerated by Lopez Val. At the battle of Concepcion the Spaniards took four hundred prisoners, whom Valdivia mutilated by cutting off their right hands and noses, and then released them, as a warning and a threat to their tribes.

This abominable act, however, only hardened the Araucanians in their determination to resist and destroy the Spaniards, and we now hear for the first time of two Indians whose names have been immortalised by the poet warrior of the conquest, Don Alonso de Ercilla y Ziniga, whose epic poem, "La Araucana" "was written in great part" as he says himself, "during the fighting and on small pieces of leather or paper on which there was hardly room for six verses."

These Indians were named Lautaro and Caupolican. Lautaro had been taken captive by the Spaniards, and became the servant, or slave of Valdivia. No one is a hero to his valet, and Lautaro soon lost his superstitious fears of his white master. He was not long in making the discovery that the Spaniards were mere mortal men, and that horses were vulnerable and docile animals. Prior to this, like all his countrymen, he believed that men and horses were part of each other, similar to the Centaurs of ancient myth. He then seems to have discovered the mystery of gunpowder, and soon afterwards escaped to his tribe and proceeded to dispel their superstitions regarding the dreaded white men.

The chief, Caupolican, entered into an alliance with him, and they made a surprise attack upon the Spanish fort, which they stormed, killing the entire garrison. At the head of two hundred horsemen Valdivia marched from Concepcion to avenge the loss. "And in the plaine" says Lopez Val, "he mette the Indians, who coming of purpose also to seeke him, and compassing him about slew most of his party, the rest escaping by the swiftness of their horses, but Valdivia having his horse slaine under

him was taken alive. Whom the Indians wished to be of a good courage and to feare nothing ; for the cause (said they) why we have taken you, is to give you gold enough. And having made a great banquet for him, the last service of all was a cuppe full of melted gold, which the Indians forced him to drink saying ' Now glut thyself with gold,' and so they killed him ! " It is interesting to know that at this battle the Araucanians advanced in the bull's head formation, which the Zulus in more recent years have proved to be so formidable even against troops armed with modern weapons.

After this victory Lautaro armed his followers with the weapons and armour of the Spaniards, and began his march northward, with the intention of burning Santiago and driving the Spaniards out of Chile. He was killed in a night attack, and Caupolican was captured through the treachery of an Indian, not of his own tribe. This brave chief was brought before the new governor, Don Garcia Hurtado de Alendoza, and condemned to die. The manner of his death was as follows : A long pole was planted in the ground, and Caupolican was impaled on the sharp point, while half a dozen soldiers shot arrows at his limbs. It will thus be seen that the Spaniards of the period were quite the equals of the Araucanians in acts of revengeful ferocity, a statement that was unfortunately true of all Europeans of the period.

The Araucanian chief, with the stoicism of his race, endured his tortures " without the quiver of an eyelid or the shadow of a frown." It is recorded by Ercilla, that Caupolican's wife was captured soon after her husband, and was brought out into the public square to see him die.

This woman, whose name was Fresia, shared with all her race the opinion that it was disgraceful to be captured in battle. " Victory or death " was the motto of the Araucanians, as it was of the old Romans. Rushing forward with her baby in her arms, she exclaimed, according to Ercilla, " Art thou not the one who made our enemies

tremble ? Art thou not the same who promised to conquer Spain ? Dost thou not know it is honour and glory to the warrior to die in battle ? ”

With these words she hurled the child she had in her arms at the tortured man, saying, “ Take thine own ! I will not be the mother of a coward’s son,” and disappeared unmolested into the forest.

The Spanish hoped that the resistance of the Araucanians would cease with the death of these chiefs, but their courage never failed, and their opposition never ceased, until eventually the Spaniards had to abandon Araucania.

In consequence, the history of the next two hundred and fifty years is largely a record of warfare between the Spaniards and the Araucanians, who, though defeated, were never subdued. On account of these perpetual wars, the Spaniards were unable to cultivate the land, develop the country or open up roads in the south, where they were forced to abandon the mines they had spilt so much blood to obtain. As Lopez Val shrewdly remarked: “ Although the Spaniards have in this province, eleven towns and two bishoppricks, yet they have little enough to maintain themselves by reason of the warres ; for they spend all the gold that the land yeeldeth in the maintenance of their soldiers which would not bee so, if they had peace, for then they might worke in all their mines.”

For many years the desultory fighting between the Spanish and the Indians was continued. Take, for example, the defeat of Basaman by the famous Indian chief, Putapichion in May, 1629. This is Basaman’s own graphic account of the disaster.

“ On the 15th May following, more than 800 enemies, after having sacked and destroyed many ranches, came to attack our command. The tears spring to my eyes when recording this disaster, and the loss of so many of my comrades, especially as it was due to bad management and the lack of good advice. These 800 Araucanians, after killing, plundering, and destroying everything, waited for us in a narrow valley called Cangrejeras. The sergeant-

major had detached some 70 men to reconnoitre their line of retreat, so that our force was reduced to 200 men, badly organized, and worse disciplined. At the outset an accident was as if a premonition of that which was about to happen. An arquebuz went off and killed a soldier in front. I do not know why I was not killed, for I was close to his side, elbow to elbow. The Indians were in columns, separated by a slight interval. Our cavalry charged the first which consisted of some 200 men ; but they lost 10 killed and five captured, and retired to an open hillock to await the infantry, which were under my command.

“ Having heard what had happened, I put as many as possible on the horses and hurried forward. In the three companies of infantry there were not 80 soldiers, which made up with the cavalry, a little more than 160 men ; the enemy having concentrated were more than 1,000 strong. I placed myself on the hillock to which our cavalry had retired, and saw from thence some of the enemy getting off their horses to come to attack us. I got off my horse, and, as the oldest captain, placed myself at the head of the vanguard, and alternating pikemen and arquebuzmen, marched in this order against the enemy (according to the good counsel of the master of camp Pineda, who had many times told me how it always gave the best results if the Indians were resolutely attacked without giving them time to count our forces). I was going to charge them when suddenly a captain of light cavalry came up with the order to wait and form my infantry in mass. I answered that it would be a pity to lose time, and that our safety depended on the rapidity of our movements ; but to this he answered that temerity rarely produced good effects, and that at any rate I had only to comply with the orders which he had given me. I obeyed, and whilst I was executing the required movement, there happened what I had, with reason, feared, for the enemy did not wait till it was finished, and attacked us in “ half-moon ” formation, infantry in the centre and cavalry on the flanks. Most unluckily the weather was

bad for us ; the rain extinguished the metal of our firelocks, and we were very soon surrounded by the numerous enemy, having been abandoned by our cavalry.

“ What can 80 do against 1,000 ? So our captains and soldiers, although they defended themselves valiantly, were pierced by the lances, or done to death by the terrible Araucanian clubs. As for myself, wounded in the arm by a lance, I found it impossible to continue defending my life. They felled me with a stroke from a club, my breast-plate was struck through by a lance, but being of good quality it saved my life. I finally lost consciousness, and when I recovered, found myself a prisoner.”*

The first Jesuits arrived in Santiago in 1593, and, as in other parts of South America, proved themselves to be the friends of the natives, whose condition either of slavery or savagery they endeavoured to ameliorate. They opened schools, built churches, and made scientific explorations into the far south, where the soldiers had never penetrated nor obtained a permanent footing.

Prominent in the annals of Chilian civilisation are the names of the Jesuit fathers, Luis de Valdivia, Diego de Rosales, Alonso de Ovalles, Miguel de Olivares, and Juan Ignacio Molina, the two last named being Chilean by birth.

These Jesuits, so long as they were un-interfered with by the rapacious governors and adventurers, imparted civilised methods, on the tribal communism of the Indians, with the result that intermarriage between the Spaniards and natives set in. It is worthy of note that although the Araucanians, the only Chilean Indians who preserved their independence, are a “ disappearing race,” they still preserve the language, as well as the old superstitions and many modified rites of their ancestors. It is said that they have preserved secrets of the old time Incas, treasures and mines, that have been deposited with certain families by fugitives from Spanish oppression, from father to son, and never revealed to any white man.

* Quoted “ Chile,” G. F. Scott-Elliot, pp. 87, 88.

In the time of Valdivia the Indian population of Chile was probably nearly a million. In the northern and central zones, where they submitted to the Spanish conquerors, they possessed a similar civilisation to the Peruvians, to whom they had paid an annual tribute of gold. They were skilful agriculturalists, and versed in the ordinary domestic arts of weaving, pottery, and metal work. It was only in Southern Chile, that the savage Araucanians excelled in nothing, save war.

CHAPTER II

CHILE UNDER SPANISH RULE

Autocracy and Corruption—The Royal Audience—The Municipal Council—The Church dependent on the King—The Jesuits—Description of Chile in the Seventeenth Century—Its three Zones—Tyranny of Spain—Ovalles on Santiago—The Finery of the Women—Shops and Manufactures—Festas, Music and Sports—The Nuns of Santiago—Church Decorations of Sugar—Holy Week and Easter—Religious Processions—The Sanitation and Water Supply of Santiago—The Streets—Cheapness of Horses and Cattle—"Promocæes" The Place of Dancing and Delight"—Wealth of Farms—The Joys of Lent—The Wines and their Attributes—Flowers and Herbs—Absence of Wild Beasts, Reptiles, and Vermin—Admirable Wild Hogs and Monkeys—"A Seventeenth Century Naturalist and Merry Gentlemen"—Indian and Negro Slaves—Mixed Marriages—Basque Emigration—The "English of the South."

The autocracy and corruption which signalised the government of Chile, from the time Valdivia founded its principal cities, sowed the seeds of distrust and hatred towards Spain on the part of the Colonists, from the earliest period. The country was ruled in the following manner. A governor was appointed by the King of Spain, usually for life, and the chief occupation of these officials during the greater part of the period, that Chile owed allegiance to Spain, was the almost ceaseless war with the Araucanian Indians. That, and the pursuit of gold, occupied their sole thoughts, and, in consequence, the material progress of the country was very slow.

The governor, however, was not an uncontrolled despot. Under him was the *Real Audiencia*, or "Royal Audience," "which had control" says the celebrated Jesuit, Alonso de Ovalles, writing in 1649, "of the affairs of Justice and of good Government, but those of war and preferment belonged to the governor." The "Royal Audience" consisted of a president, four *oidones* or judges, and two attorney-generals. The members of the "Royal Audience" were always of Spanish birth, and were appointed more for favouritism than ability. This body was instituted

in the beginning of the seventeenth century, and in addition to the purposes mentioned, acted as a sort of House of Lords over the municipalities of the Chilean towns. It will scarcely be credited that members of the "Royal Audience" were forbidden to hold commercial intercourse with native Chileans, *i.e.*, the children of Spanish Colonists, or to marry Chilean women.

The *Cabildos*, or Municipal Councils, consisted of two Alcaldes, or Mayors, and six councillors or aldermen. These officials were not elected, but purchased their positions at public auctions, held annually. One can imagine the corruption that prevailed in these old Chilean cities.

Strange as it may seem, even the Church was an echo of the King. "The King alone" says Ovalles, translated in Pinkerton's *Voyages*, "provides the vacancies by virtue of his Royal patronage, and the concession of the Popes; so that there is not, as in Spain, the bishops appointed by the Pope; but in the Indies all the dignitaries of the Cathedrals, even to the parish priests, are all at the King's nomination, but with some differences; for the dignitaries are bestowed in Spain itself, by the advice of the Council of the Indies; but the cures or livings of parish priests, the King does not bestow them by his governor or president, who exposes a public edict; that all opposers for the vacancy of such a benefice, may come and oppose the examination and of these the bishop presents three to the governor-general, to chuse in the king's name."

Thus it will be seen that the only persons of influence who were independent of the Spanish Crown in Chile were the Jesuits, to whose exertions such development as the country obtained was mainly due. They were the only protectors and civilisers of the Indians, and naturally they were frequently the objects of the enmity both of the Church and the Crown officials in Chile, until their expulsion in 1767. Had it not been for these wretched jealousies, there is little doubt that the Jesuits would have civilised the Araucanians on lines similar to those so successfully pursued in Paraguay, amongst the Indians, or with the

Hurons in Canada. It is indeed difficult to express all that the South American States, in the early days of their history, owe to the Society of Jesus, and to the devotion and self-sacrifice of its members. As Sir Arthur Conan Doyle observed, in reference to the Jesuit missions amongst the North American savages, "If the Church of Rome should ever be wrecked it may come from her weakness in high places, where all Churches are at their weakest, or it may be because with what is very narrow, she tries to explain that which is very broad, but assuredly it will never be through the fault of her rank and file, for never upon earth have men and women spent themselves more lavishly and more splendidly than in her service."

From the very first there was considerable friction between the Municipal Councils and the Royal Audience, which, even as early as 1649, was noted by the diligent Ovalles.

Fortunately, however, the resources and advantages bestowed upon Chile by nature are so enormous that bad government could only retard, it would not stifle, the development and riches of this favoured land.

* * * * *

A glance at the map of Chile, and a description of the country, are now necessary in order to understand its progress and history. Chile is believed to have derived its name from the Peruvian word "*Tchile*," which is synonymous with "beautiful" and "snow," so that the pun which so readily suggests itself to English people is not entirely inept.

The country is divisible into three regions possessing marked characteristics, as far as climate and products are concerned. The total area of Chile is about 290,741 square miles, or more than twice the area of Great Britain. The Northern District is almost tropical, and reaches to parallel 29°. It is a country of steppe-like plains and pampas, that gradually rise to the base of the mountains. In some parts of this region rain only falls after intervals of years, and desert conditions prevail over a great area. Nature

has enriched Northern Chile to an incalculable extent with minerals. It is in this district that are found the famous nitrate deposits, the only deposits of magnitude in the world, which are alone sufficient to ensure the wealth and importance of Chile in the concordiat of the world's nations. The Central District, which extends from parallel 29°, to parallel 38°, may be described as temperate. It is eminently adapted for agriculture, and includes the largest towns and commercial centres. Its climate is similar to that of California. Wheat, maize, olives, fruit of all kinds, and wines that compare favourably with those of Spain and France, are among the products of this region, which is also rich in flocks and herds.

The third zone of Chile is densely wooded, and extends to Cape Horn. It is the home of the Araucanians, and, in the far South, of the Fuegians. South of the Bio Bio river in this district, the Araucanians maintained their independence almost to the present day. It is rich in coal and iron, and is famous for its sheep farms and fisheries.

The climate of Chile generally, though varying greatly from the dry tract of the north, to the cold, rain, and winds of Tierra del Fuego at the extreme south, may fairly be described as temperate.

Molina, one of the most interesting and authoritative of the older writers on the subject, protests fiercely against the generally held opinion that the climate of the southern extremity of America is excessively cold. In support of his argument he pertinently quotes Hawkesworth, who speaks, in his "Voyages," of trees eight yards in circumference, so that four men joining hand in hand could not compass them, and of woods in which "notwithstanding the coldness of the climate there are innumerable parrots and other birds of the most beautiful plumage." Why, says the Chilean, should parrots and other birds, such as love heat, voluntarily inhabit a country condemned to perpetual winter? But, wherever the truth of the matter may lie, he goes on to prophecy shrewdly that, as the country became peopled, the temperature would be softened, as in the case



A VIEW OF THE MUSEUM AND GARDENS, SANTIAGO

AMERICAN

of France, which, when Julius Cæsar first penetrated its woods and wilds, certainly suffered from a climate much less genial than that in which it rejoices at present.

The natives, he says, live to a hundred, more frequently than Europeans to four score. Then, in a pretty phrase, that reminds one of a famous passage in *Cymbeline*,* he adds, "The fruit hangs there upon the tree until it drops; everywhere in the Old World the rude climate shakes it down."

That same enthusiastic native writer upon Chile, the Abbé Don J. Ignatius Molina, who "flourished" at the end of the eighteenth century, has compared the country, not inaptly, to Italy. The two countries, he pointed out, are situated in nearly the same parallels of latitude, both are much longer than they are wide, and each is divided by a chain of mountains, the Cordilleras, or the Andes, being to Chile what the Appenines are to Italy, the watershed by which the country is fertilised. "This chain of mountains," says Molina, "has as sensible an influence on the salubrity of the air of Chile as the Appenines have upon that of Italy; and so firmly are the inhabitants convinced of this fact, that, whenever they attempt to account for any change in the state of the atmosphere, they attribute it to the effect of these mountains, which they consider as powerful and infallible agents."

Such was the land which the courage of the early Spanish pioneers presented to their King—a land flowing with inexhaustible riches, and which merely required labour, capital, science and good government to tap. Unfortunately, however, the indifference to the welfare of Chile displayed by the aristocratic governors appointed by the Kings of Spain, handicapped all progress. "Nobody save a Spaniard," as Señor Victor Eastman, the secretary to the Chilean Legation, stated in a lecture recently delivered at the South Place Institute, in London, "could enter Chile, and no goods unless of Spanish origin, could be brought into

* "Hang there like fruit, my soul, till the tree die."—*Cymbeline* V.

the country and sold. All importation of books and literature into the Colony was forbidden by Royal Command in order to suppress liberal ideas. What were the results of this short-sighted and narrow colonial policy? The people of Chile were extremely poor and ignorant, and all the necessaries of life 'were exceedingly dear'—that came from Europe. The only gainers by this policy were the Spanish Crown and the merchants in Spain. The Crown levied taxes on everything that was imported into the country, and the merchants sold their goods at exorbitant prices. Such a policy could not make the ties between the Mother Country and the Colony very close. There was great disaffection, for not only was liberty unknown, but the Spanish Governors did nothing for the welfare of their dominions."

Yet, despite these disadvantages, the advance made by Chile during its first hundred years of colonization excited the wonder of all contemporary writers. One hundred and four years after Santiago was founded, Ovalles wrote, that there were "few cities in the Indies outdoing it in finery, particularly as to the women (it were to be wished it were not to that excess) for all things coming from Europe are there prodigiously dear." "The finery of women," he laments, "exceeds that of Madrid even!" There appears to have been a servant problem in Santiago in the seventeenth century, for Ovalles notes that the "women, scorning to go into service, are all ladies and love to appear as such, as much as they can."

Santiago made rapid progress. Ovalles was absent for eight years in Rome, and on his return he wrote that he "scarcely knew the place again" on account of the numerous new buildings and the general improvements. "There was when I left the place," he wrote, "about a dozen shops of good retailers, and at my return there were above fifty; and the same proportionately as to the shops of shoemakers, taylor, carpenters, smiths, goldsmiths and other handicraftsmen."

Chilean sculptors and artists were already at work upon

altar pieces and paintings for the chapels, and although there was then no university, the Jesuits and Dominicans were empowered to grant degrees to the scholars and students who attended their schools. Santiago and the other cities were merry places to dwell in when they were not being attacked, which at times happened even after the Araucanians were driven south of the Bio Bio river, by bands of buccaneers, who plundered the coast towns like Valparaiso. The festivals of the Church were numerous, as well as fiestas and religious processions in which the Christian Indians took a prominent part. There were a number of bands in the different towns, which took part in both religious and secular rejoicings. On these occasions Ovalles relates that it was the custom of the nuns, of whom there were great numbers, perhaps owing to the heavy mortality of the men in the Indian wars, to make artificial flowers and fruits of white sugar, as well as candlesticks of the same material, which were used to ornament the churches on solemn occasions, and which were afterwards distributed to the congregation. Ovalles also relates that he has "often seen all the woodwork of the Church covered with preserved citron, in the form of nuns or angels in mezzo relieve, and fruits and flowers of the same material so well executed that they appear new gathered."

Going to Church must have been a rare treat to the Chilean children of the period, as the "decorations were eaten by the congregation after mass."

Singular to relate, such a number of Chilean women desired to enter convents, that the Mother Superiors found it necessary to refuse admission to all who could not provide large doweries. One Captain Alonso del Campo Lautadilla, however, struck by the sad fate of these would-be nuns, left his estate to build a nunnery for dowerless women, which Father Ovalles hoped "would be of great service in providing for poor maids."

Holy Week, was, in old Santiago, as indeed it is to-day, remarkable for its religious processions, which represented

the various incidents in the life of Our Lord, much in the same way as they are now depicted by the Cinematograph.

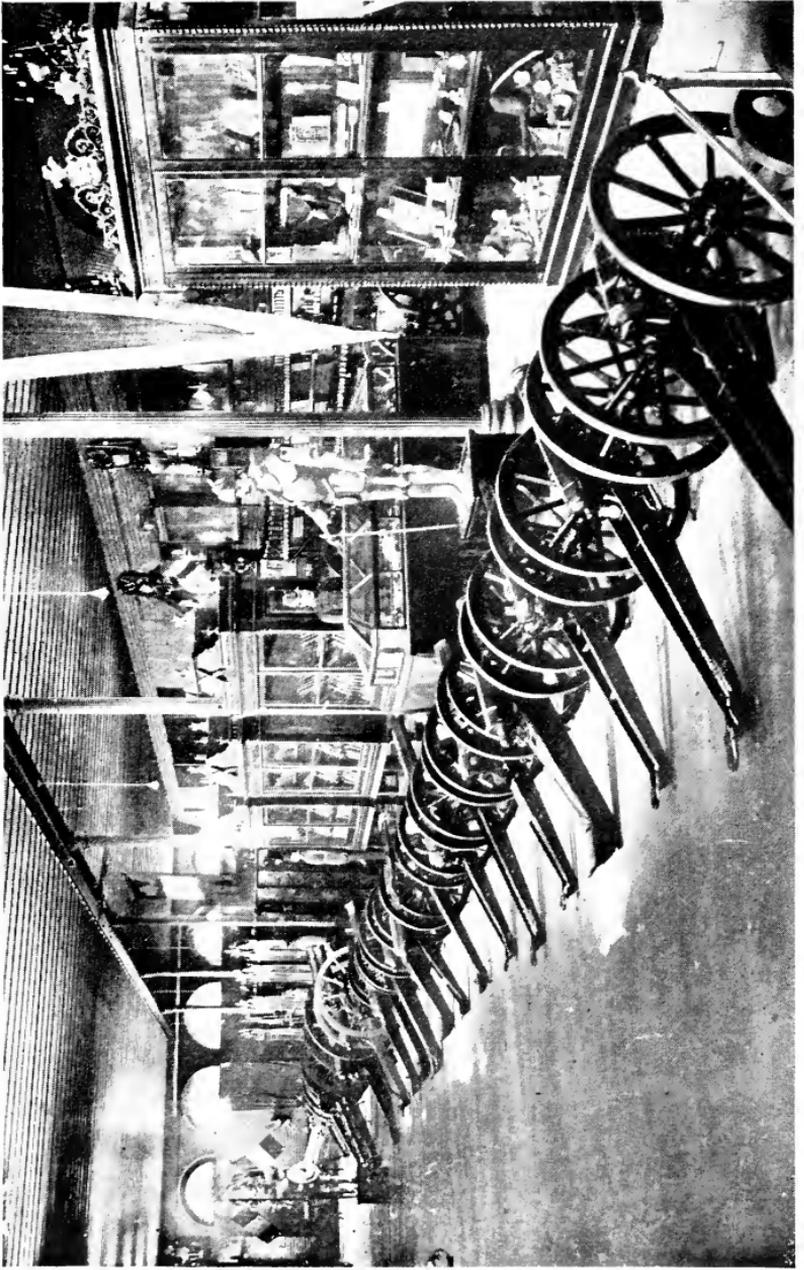
The penances and whippings which the Chileans, and especially the Christian Indians, inflicted upon themselves on Holy Thursday, aroused the astonishment of Ovalles, who said that it "was frequently necessary to interfere with them, else they would lash themselves to death with whips armed with hooks."

At Easter, the whole town was illuminated with wax candles, and after the religious ceremonies and processions in which the child Jesus was represented by an Indian boy dressed in Indian fashion—the Jesuits knew certainly how to appeal to the native mind—sports were held, including the national one of the bull-ring, in which the gentlemen of the town took part, as in Ovalles' time there appear to have been no professional bull-fighters.

Santiago was an infinitely more sanitary and modern city, in the seventeenth century, than either London or Paris during the same period. Ovalles noted this, for he says of Santiago that it "is superior to most of the old cities of Europe, for it is regular like a chess board, and in that shape, and that which we call the squares for the men, of black and white are in the city called isles, with this difference that some of them are triangular, some oval, some round, but the square ones are all of the same make and bigness and are perfectly square, from whence it follows that wheresoever a man stands at any corner he sees four streets according to the four parts of the heavens. These squares were at first but of four large edifices, which were distributed to first founders, but now by time and succession of inheritance they have become divided into lesser. The houses were all of stone or brick."

"Towards the north, the city is watered by a pleasant river, till it swells sometimes in winter, when it rains eight, nay twelve, and fourteen days without ceasing; for then it overflows and does great mischief in the city."

"From this river is drawn an arm, on the east side which



MILITARY MUSEUM, SANTIAGO

being sub-divided into as many streams as there are squares, enters into every one of them, and runs through all the transversal streets by a conduit or canal ; and bridges are everywhere for the passage of carts ; so that all the houses have a stream of water which cleanses and carries away all the filth of the city, and from this disposition it is easy to water or overflow all the streets in summertime, and that without any charge."

The streets were all sufficiently broad to allow three coaches to go abreast easily ; they are paved on each side near the houses, and the middle is unpaved for the passage of carts. The principal street, La Caunada, was broad enough for sixteen coaches to pass and was already planted with trees and adorned with statues.

Although imported goods from Europe were dear, provisions were astoundingly cheap and plentiful. None of our domestic animals existed in Chile until they were introduced by the Spaniards, yet when Ovalles wrote, horses, cattle, and sheep were so plentiful as to be nearly valueless. "A murrain among cattle" he says "in Chile is thought a necessary purge of the too great abundance of them. In the beginning of the settlement of Chile, Antonio de Herrera says that horses were commonly sold for a thousand pieces of eight, about £1,200 each. Yet a hundred years afterwards Ovalles saw "horses already dressed for war sold for two crowns apiece, and yet for shape, courage, and good qualities they yield to no Neapolitan horse I ever saw. The cows too, which were first out of all price, I have seen sold for a crown apiece, calves for half a crown, and the sheep for three pence or three halfpence apiece."

The country round about Santiago was called by the native Indians, Promocæs, "a place of dancing and delight." Ovalles says that "travelling in this country, when I came to the farm of any Spaniard, he would entertain me with nothing but the praise of it, that I could not imagine it to be outdone by any in the world ; but when I came to another farm, the master of it would relate to me,

such admirable properties of his, that the first would seem but ordinary to me."

Chile was a sportsman's paradise in Ovalles' time. "Partridge are abounding" he writes, "and all manner of game; and as for fish, there are such quantities of smelts and trouts, that they take them where they will, being almost as sure to catch them as if they had them in ponds at home."

Lent, "was the most delicious time of the year" in Ovalles' opinion, "for besides lobsters, oysters, crabs and other sorts of shell fish and sea fish of all kinds, they fish in rivers for trouts, and other very choice river fish. At the same time there is great plenty of vegetables and salads and all kinds of fruit, of which they make so many dishes, that the mortification of fasting is hardly perceived! . . . The wines are most noble and generous, there is such plenty of them, that the plenty is a grievance, there being no vent for such quantities; it kills the Indians, because when they drink, it is without measure, till they fall down, and it being very strong, it burns their inward parts; the best kind is the muscatel."

Ovalles, who can find no blemish on his beloved Chile, speaks lovingly of its flowers, of which he counted forty-two sorts, not including roses, carnations and flowers brought from Europe. These Chilean plants possessed such a lovely odour that a scent called *aqua d'angeles*, or Angel's water, was distilled from them.

He tells most astounding stories of the medicinal herbs of Chile, and of the cures worked by them, that savour of miraculous. In this respect it must be remembered that upwards of two hundred medicinal herbs are indigenous to Chile. People in seventeenth century Chile, Ovalles informs us, seldom died except from old age, and that was staved off indefinitely by the "savour of the waters and the sweetness of the air" so that men of ninety looked as young and "took exercise as gaily as men of sixty in Spain."

Naturally the reader will expect a dark side to this

pleasing picture, and tales of fearsome wild beasts, serpents, and insects. Their expectations, however, are doomed to disappointment.

“The country is yet to be valued upon another property of it, which is that it is free from poisonous creatures, such as vipers and snakes, scorpions or toads, so that anyone may sit under a tree or lie and roll on the ground, without fear of being bit by them. Neither are there tigers, panthers, or any other mischievous animals.”

Some extremely well conducted wild hogs lived in the Cordilleras, “that have their navel in their back, upon the back bone; they go in herds and each herd has its leader, who is known from them all, because when they march, none dares go before him, all the rest follow in great order.” These exemplary hogs were great sticklers for etiquette. “Their way of eating is admirable” says Ovalles with approbation, “they divide themselves into two bodies; one half of them goes to certain trees, which are like cinnamon trees; these they shake to bring down the flowers, which the other half feeds on; and when they have eat enough, they go and relieve the other half of the flock, and make the flowers fall for them; and so return to their companions, that they have received from them.” The monkeys, too, possess only good qualities, being “merry and wise,” and only grow “dejected and sad” when they happen to get dirty.

Strange to say, that although Peru and the Argentine, on account of varieties of insect life that flourished in the seventeenth century, and also, unfortunately, to-day, were what “Bird O’ Freedom Sawins” described as “All fire buggy spots,” Ovalles, who suffered severely from insect pests during his travels in Peru, takes great pride in pointing out that Chile is free from these disturbers of peace.

“There is another most wonderful singularity of the country of Chile” he says, “that not only it does not breed, but will not suffer any vermin”;—the good priest mentions many detestable varieties by name—“to live

in it ; which is the more to be admired, as on the other side of the mountains they swarm."

He then relates an anecdote of " a merry gentleman " who was evidently addicted to scientific research, who brought a box full of objectionable insects from Peru, and had them fed on the way. The air of Chile, however, was as deadly to them as that of Ireland to snakes, and, as Father Ovalles observed in triumph, " no sooner were they come to the valley of Aconcagua, but they all died, not so much as one remaining alive."

From these brief extracts from the Jesuit historian and naturalist, we can gather a fair picture of Colonial Chile. There were gold and silver mines of incredible richness worked by miserable slaves, but only too frequently the treasures they toiled for never reached Spain, as the ships that conveyed the glittering dust were often captured by the English and Dutch pirates that infested the South Sea.

We can picture the haughty, Spanish governors, looking down with austere pride, upon their fellow-countrymen, who were tillers of soil, and, despite misgovernment, growing rich and prosperous. Rumours of mines of fabulous richness, and hidden treasures of gold, from time to time arose, and parties of explorers, like the Conquistadores of a century before, set out for untracked mountains and unexplored forests, from which most of them never returned. The land was tilled, and the cattle tended by Indian slaves, while in the houses of the wealthy a few negroes, as well as Indian slaves, were found.

Inter-marriage with Christian Indian women was frequent, and a Spanish-Indian race was growing up. In the mines belonging to the Spanish nobles, captive Indians toiled under dreadful conditions, and died like flies, although the Jesuits, when permitted, endeavoured to mitigate the horrors of their captivity.

As a whole, the people were gay, ignorant, and pleasure-seeking, fond of music, dancing, and the spectacular side of religion. The considerable emigration of Spaniards from the Basque country was rapidly giving them a shrewd,

commercial side to their character, which, in modern times, has earned their descendants the title, of the "English of the South." The majority were ignorant and superstitious to a degree. Hence they were disposed to believe the wondrous traveller's tales of eldorados and buried cities, and the still more marvellous miracles, which were almost continuously being wrought in Colonial Chile. Like their descendants of to-day, they were courteous, hospitable and brave, and the beauty of their smiling land became mirrored on the faces of their women, as the stern grandeur of the rocky Andes became reflected in the sturdiness and courage of the men.

CHAPTER III

HOW CHILE WON HOME RULE

Effect of American Independence upon Chile—Desires of the Chilean Colonists—Tithes—Burdens of the Peasantry—Similarity of Chilean grievances with those of Ireland—Ambrosio O'Higgins appointed Governor—His Romantic Career—The Rebellion in Peru—Spain grants small Reforms—O'Higgins makes a Tour of Chile—Introduces Reforms and Pacifies the Araucanians—The French Revolution and Chile—Napoleon's Invasion of Spain—King Ferdinand Deposed and Joseph Buonaparte Crowned King of Spain—Chile Loyal to Ferdinand—Home Rule for Chile advocated—Constitutional Government adopted—The Triumph of Home Rule.

The Declaration of Independence by the English Colonies, that now form the United States, had its echo in the Spanish South American possessions, especially in Chile, where the feeling of antagonism to the short-sighted policy of the Spanish Crown grew apace.

At first the aim of Chile, and all the other Spanish American Colonies, was to obtain redress of grievances from Spain, rather than separation and independence. They wished to have free trade between themselves, and all other nations, the abolition of all monopolies, in favour of the King, to have Spanish Americans eligible, equally with Spaniards, to all positions and employments, and to have juntas, or elected councils, formed in the various towns, to take the place of the corrupt old Cabildos or Municipal Councils, the members of which purchased their positions.

The question of tithes was also a burning one. The King of Spain, by a Special Act of the Papacy, had the appointment of all ecclesiastics, not only in Chile, but in all Spanish America, The King consequently claimed and collected the tithes. Nominally, one fourth was supposed to go to the archbishop and bishops, one fourth

to deacons and canons, one fourth to curates, and the balance to the maintenance and building of Churches. The King, however, appropriated a large percentage of the tithes. The salaries of ecclesiastics were cut down, and the tithes were eventually farmed out in large lots, to wealthy speculators, who re-farmed them to smaller bidders, all seeking to make large profits from their purchases. In consequence, the peasantry, who had the tithes to pay, suffered severely from the burdens these various exactions imposed upon them. At that period the whole of the land of Chile belonged to less than three hundred persons, who had received immense grants from the throne, at different periods, either through favouritism or military services. Half of the landowners, probably, held the best estates, which they sub-let to the farmers, at what would now be termed rack-rents. In addition to this the landowners formed combinations to rule prices in the markets, so that it will be seen that the peasant Colonists were gradually becoming reduced to a condition similar to that of the peasantry of Ireland.

Trade with foreign countries was absolutely prohibited under pain of confiscation and death, and trade with Spain could only be carried on through the medium of Peru.

One cannot help being struck with the similarity of the complaints of the Spanish South Americans of the eighteenth century, to those of the Irish of the same period, and it is noteworthy that the first break in the general maladministration of Chile, occurred through the appointment of an Irishman, Ambrosio O'Higgins, as Governor-General, in 1788.

His appointment was one of the results of the rebellion in Peru in 1781, which was headed by a descendant of the Incas, named Condorcanqui. He took the name of Tupac Amaru, and his rising was at first successful. After his victory at Sangarara, he demanded certain reforms in the Government, which were rejected. In 1783 the rebellion was put down, and Tupac Amaru put to death with hideous cruelty.

His death, however, resounded throughout Spanish America, like a trumpet blast. In alarm at the many manifestations of liberal ideas, the Spanish Crown granted small reforms, and in Chile O'Higgins is remembered, as the most progressive and enlightened governor of the Colonial period.

O'Higgins' career had been one of romance. He was born near Dangan Castle, County Kilkenny, Ireland, and was employed as an errand boy and page by Lady Bective. He had an uncle, a priest, who sent him to Cadiz to be educated for the Church, as at that time education was prohibited to Roman Catholics in Ireland. He was an apt scholar, but having no desire to take orders, made his way to South America, and became a small trader in Peru. Then he went to Chile where he served the Government as an engineer, and took part with success in a campaign against the Araucanians. Eventually he secured the influence of the French Court, and the Spanish King was requested to promote O'Higgins. In consequence he was created Governor-General, and, in addition, Field-Marshal of the army.

Directly he received his appointment he made a tour of Chile, studied the various phases of the country and its resources, and investigated all complaints. The ill-treatment of the Indians by the mine owners and landlords aroused his indignation, and in spite of the opposition of the landed gentry, he effected many improvements in their condition, both in the mines and on the land. He encouraged agriculture, built two new cities in the south, promoted commerce and fisheries, and caused roads to be constructed, of which the one from Valparaiso to Santiago is the most famous. He also projected the dike at Santiago, which protects the city from the inundations of the Mapocho river. O'Higgins was created Viceroy of Peru in 1796, having previously laid the foundations of a permanent peace with the Araucanians, whom he promised should not be attacked or offended without cause, and that every effort should be made to maintain peace with them. As a



PLAZA DE ARMAS, SANTIAGO



CHILEAN BATTLESHIP

safeguard against attack, he took the precaution of keeping troops ready for war on their frontier, and in the course of time the Indians, seeing that, although the Spaniards were armed and ready, they did not wage war upon them, cultivated their lands, and lived in peace.

O'Higgins was succeeded by Spanish Governors who, unfortunately, did not walk in his footsteps; meanwhile the principles of the French Revolution, actively disseminated throughout Chile by the instrumentality of smuggled books and pamphlets, spread with great rapidity all over the country.

Events moved swiftly; Bonaparte invaded Spain, and deposed Ferdinand; Joseph Bonaparte was crowned King of Spain and the Spanish Dominions. Chile, as well as other Spanish possessions, had been frightfully impoverished by the Mother Country during the progress of the war with France, but the Colonists bore the taxation at first uncomplainingly.

The popular feeling in Chile was against recognising the sovereignty of Joseph Bonaparte, and was loyal to Ferdinand. Many, however, were of the opinion that the conquest of Spain by Napoleon was complete, and that the rule of the Bonapartes was destined to be permanent. Hence a strong party arose that advocated "Home Rule" for Chile. One of the leading advocates of Chilean Autonomy, Don Jose Antonio Rojas, was arrested by order of the Governor, Carrasco, on May 25th, 1810. This act provoked an outbreak of popular indignation. Meetings were held, and Carrasco was forced to resign. He was succeeded by Don Mateo Toro de Zambrano, who held an open session of the *cabildo* or Municipal Council for the avowed purpose of adopting a system of Government "to retain their dominions for King Ferdinand."

This session was held on the memorable eighteenth day of September, 1810, the natal day of Chilean Independence. It was resolved that an Administrative Council should be elected which should have administrative power, until a National Congress should be elected to decide upon the

form of Government. The Council thus formed was called the "Junta Guberuativa." It was the first form of Independent Government the Chileans had known. Its election was greeted with popular rejoicing. The towns were illuminated; enthusiasm, music and cheers prevailed wherever the people congregated. Chile had won Home Rule!

CHAPTER IV

THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE AND THE RISE OF CHILE

The First Congress—Reforms—Slavery Abolished—The Royalists in Fear Recognise Bonaparte — Bernardo O'Higgins — Spanish America Ablaze—Royalists Attack and Defeat the Chileans—Heroism of the Troops — Spanish Domination Restored — The Patriots Re-organise their Forces in Brazil—The Battle of Chicabuco — O'Higgins enters Santiago—Battle of Maipo—Chilean Declaration of Independence—O'Higgins Forms a Navy—Captain O'Brien—Lord Cochrane—Viceroy of Peru Abdicates—Chile Recognised—As a Sovereign State—George Canning's Advocacy of Chile—Early British Loans—Growth of Valparaiso—Development of Chile in the Fifties—Scotch and Welsh Sheep Farmers—War with Bolivia and Peru—Balmaceda's Presidentship—The Revolution—The Argentine Boundary Dispute—Chilean Statesman's Tribute to King Edward the Peacemaker—Chile's Development since her Independence.

The first Congress met on July 4th, 1811, the anniversary of the Declaration of Independence by the United States. During the elections an attempt was made by a Spaniard named Figueroa to found a military dictatorship, and a skirmish took place between the troops he commanded and a body of patriots. Some fifty lives were lost in the affair, but Figueroa was captured and executed.

The Congress, during its first sessions, accomplished many salutary reforms. It abolished slavery, established free trade for the purpose of developing commerce and shipping, decreed that all purchased offices should be done away with, and that henceforth that all such offices should be filled by annual elections. The clergy were to be paid from the public treasury, not by tithes, and the Royal Audience and many other offices were abolished, and the higher salaries reduced. These measures were regarded as revolutionary, although they were issued in the name of King Ferdinand. The Spanish Royalists, fearing to lose their power and property, preferred to recognize Bonaparte, and preserve their privileges, rather than yield to their lawful monarch, whose weakness was the democrats' opportunity.

The Council of the Indies—that South American House of Lords—presented Bonaparte with the Colonial possessions of Spain, and rupture between the Royalists and the Patriots, or “creoles,” as the Chilean-born Spanish were called, became inevitable. For a time the country was divided, but bloodshed was prevented through the exertions of Bernardo O’Higgins, the natural son of the Irish Governor-General. In the meantime Spanish America was ablaze with insurrection. In Peru, the Royalists were victorious, and the Viceroy despatched a large force, in March, 1813, under General Antonio Pareja, to compel Chile to recognise the authority of Spain and the Viceroy of Peru, who acted in the name of the Spanish Crown.

At that time Congress and the Junta were almost equally divided between the Patriots or Reformers, and the Royalists. A young officer named Carrera, who had served in the Peninsular War, assumed supreme command, but his high handed militarism alarmed and disgusted the patriotic leaders. As one of their leaders, Juan Martinez de Rozas stated, “the revolution had been undertaken to give Chile freedom, not to place her under the heel of a military despot.”

Hence it will be seen that, at the time of Pareja’s invasion, the country was divided apparently hopelessly between two factions. The invasion, for the time being, united them, and Carrera attacked the invaders in a series of battles, with no decisive results. The command was afterwards transferred to O’Higgins, who was appointed Commander-in-Chief, and who was associated with Colonel Juan Mackenna.

On October 1st, 1814, the battle of Raucagua was fought, in which the Royalists, who outnumbered O’Higgins’ force by five to one, defeated the Chileans hopelessly.

Yet, there are some defeats more glorious than victory, and the resistance of the Chilean troops and the heroism displayed by their Commander, is regarded with patriotic pride, all over South America.

Six days afterwards the Royalists entered Santiago, and



Spanish "law and order" was restored. Executions, imprisonments, and punishment followed. The corrupt old institutions were revived, the public library closed, the liberty of the press repealed, and a general reign of terror existed for the three years that Chile suffered under her newly established Spanish masters.

Buenos Aires had recently established her independence ; and to Mendoza the survivors of the Chilean army, including O'Higgins, had fled for refuge.

During this period, O'Higgins and General San Martin, "the Hannibal of the Andes," were occupied in organizing an army. In January, 1817, the march across the Cordilleras began. The army followed in the footsteps of Almagro, and crossed the famous Uspallata pass, now pierced by a tunnel of the Transandine Railway. On the 12th of February the famous battle of Chicabuco was fought and won. Two days afterwards O'Higgins entered Santiago, where he was received with popular enthusiasm. An assembly was at once called and, in imitation of the old Romans, O'Higgins was appointed "Supreme Director" or Dictator. The final land battle of the war took place at Maipo, a few miles south of Santiago, on April 5th, 1818, and resulted in the complete defeat of the Royalists. On January 1st of the same year, a "Declaration of Independence" was made by Chile to all foreign nations, but the young republic was not officially recognised till four years later.

Although the victory of Maipo relieved Chile from fears of an invasion by land, her enormous coast line was open to attack. The first care of O'Higgins was to form a navy. A United States frigate was purchased, and baptized the "Lautaro," after the Araucanian leader of that name, and entrusted to the command of Captain O'Brien, an Irishman who had served in the British navy. Other purchases followed, and soon the Chileans were strong enough to attack and gain signal victories over the Spaniards on the seas. After a victorious cruise, the Chileans invited that famous hero of South American Independence,

Admiral Lord Cochrane, to become Vice-Admiral of their navy. He accepted the command, and Chile waged war upon Peru by sea and land. Eventually the Viceroy of Peru was forced to abdicate, and Chile, recognized by all as a free and sovereign state, set to work to develop its great resources and establish itself among the nations of the earth.

It is noteworthy that England, largely owing to George Canning's advocacy of the claims of Chile, was the first country to recognize Chilean Independence.

The result of this was that British trade with the young Republic, grew by leaps and bounds. O'Higgins, in 1822, was able to float a loan of £1,000,000 in London, to cancel the debts incurred during the War of Independence, and an informal *entente cordial*, which has prevailed until the present day, was entered into between the Chileans and the British. It is also noteworthy that at that period Bernardo O'Higgins wished to divert Irish emigration to Chile, but the scheme, owing to the distance between the countries, fell through.

O'Higgins retired in 1823, and ten years later the Chilean political constitution, which, with a few variations, has remained unaltered to the present day, was agreed upon.

Valparaiso by this time had become the most important trade centre on the Pacific coast; and in the 'forties the first steamship line between Liverpool and Valparaiso was established.

The development of Chile in the 'fifties was rapid. During the presidency of Don Manuel Montt—between 1851 and 1861—railways and banks were established, the Laws were codified on the plan of the Code Napoleon, public education was attended to, and colonies of Welsh and Scotch sheep farmers were attracted to Patagonia. During this period Santiago was embellished with numerous public buildings, and a loan of £1,200,000 floated in London. Although, since the establishment of the Republic, Chile has been frequently at war—with the Peruvian-Bolivian combination under Santa Cruz; against Spain and the Araucanians in

the 'sixties, when Valparaiso was bombarded by the Spanish fleet and a loss of £2,000,000 experienced through the destruction caused by the Spanish fire; and in the war which culminated in the triumph of the Chilean navy, against Peru and Bolivia in 1879-1884—Chile never once ceased to pay the interest on her debts.

Balmaceda became President in 1886. His presidency culminated in a revolution, due to Balmaceda claiming the right to nominate the members of his cabinet without the consent of the Congress. The revolutionists were successful in overthrowing Balmaceda's Government, and the President committed suicide, although for a long time there were many who believed the absurdity that the story of his death was but a ruse, and that the ex-President was living incognito in peaceful Bournemouth! International capitalists had by this time been attracted to Chile by the Nitrate deposits, and since then Chile has loomed large in the world of finance. The country has enjoyed unbroken peace since this epoch. Arbitration, instead of war, has been the Republic's policy.

An event of international importance in connection with Chile, was the settlement, through the mediation of Great Britain and the efforts of King Edward the Peacemaker, of the Argentine boundary claims, a dispute which at one time, nearly led to war between the two Republics. "His Majesty's decision" says Señor Victor Eastman, "was received in both countries with the respect and gratitude, which the acts of great sovereigns and enlightened advisers always inspire. The British Empire by this act of its Ruler has won a still greater share, if that be possible, in the hearts of all true Chileans and Argentines. Unborn generations will, like ourselves, always remember that it was due to the British Government that a fratricidal war was averted, a war which, even to the victor, would have resulted in something approaching annihilation. Had such a calamity taken place, the successful combatants must have exclaimed, with the Iron Duke, that "There is nothing sadder than a victory, except a defeat."

King George's Coronation was made memorable to the Chileans by his award with regard to certain claims made against Chile by American financiers, supported by the United States Government. His Majesty's decision was hailed with acclamation by both nations, and contributed greatly to the personal good feeling the Chileans have for the British and their Monarch.

The progress that Chile has made since the War of Independence may be realised, when it is remembered that, though her population in 1822 did not exceed 400,000, to-day her population is upwards of 4,000,000. She had no navy, no system of public education, no press, and no constitution ninety years ago. To-day, in proportion to the population, she is in these respects far in advance of many European countries.

CHAPTER V

BRITISH HEROES WHOM THE CHILEANS VENERATE

Chile, the England of the South—What England has done for Chile—Ambrosio O'Higgins—Bernardo O'Higgins—General John McKenna—Benjamin V. McKenna—Lord Thomas Cochrane, Earl of Dundonald—The Capture of the Esmeralda in Callao Harbour—Cochrane, the Pioneer of Steam in the Navy—His Career, Secret Plan of War and Death in 1860—General William Miller—His Famous Exploits during the War of Chilean Independence—Miller's death on a British Warship—Honours Paid to his Remains—Vice-Admiral Patrick Lynch—His Brilliant Career and Death in 1886.

The Chileans take great pride in the saying: "Somos los Ingleses del Sur"—"We are the English of the South." This is not to be wondered at, seeing the enormous influence men of British birth have had, for upwards of a century, in developing the natural resources and commerce of Chile, and in establishing her as a Power amongst the nations of the earth.

British soldiers and sailors assisted Chile to throw off the yoke of Spain; English investors advanced the funds that enabled the young Republic to struggle into existence; English capital and enterprise have developed the coal mines in the south, the nitrate works in the north. Many of the railroads have been built by English capital, and constructed by English engineers. The Chilean Navy has been built on English lines, and constructed in accordance with British naval traditions. In short, England may be said to have played a most important part in the construction of modern Chile, having acted as civiliser, banker, engineer, and developer to that up-to-date and progressive Republic.

It is noteworthy that the first Governor of Chile possessing progressive ideas as to government and the subject races, was an Irishman, Ambrosio O'Higgins, the only man of lowly birth who ever rose to be governor of a Colony and Viceroy under the rule of Spain! His career was Aladdin-like in his progress from an Irish peasant lad, to a hawker with a little stall beneath the shadows of Lima Cathedral.

Then he became a contractor for the construction of rest places, or casuchas, on the cordilleras, between Chile and Mendoza. We next find him a captain of cavalry, and finally Governor of Chile, and Viceroy of Peru !

His natural son, Bernardo O'Higgins, the "Liberator of Chile," although born in South America, was educated in England. A brief account of his brilliant military career during the War of Independence has been given in a previous chapter. During the period of his presidentship, O'Higgins was virtually King of Chile, and although he desired a constitution, he governed without one. After his abdication Bernardo O'Higgins was presented with an estate, by the Peruvian Government, to the development of which he devoted himself until his death in 1846. Associated with Bernardo O'Higgins in the War of Independence, was General John McKenna, a native of Clogher, County Tyrone, where he was born in 1771. Like Ambrosio O'Higgins, he was sent to Spain to be educated, and joined the Irish corps of military engineers in the Spanish Army in his seventeenth year. Disgusted with the slowness of promotion in the Spanish Army, he left for Peru, after he had served for some time against the French in the campaign of 1794.

Ambrosio O'Higgins, who was then Viceroy of Peru, employed him to build bridges and construct roads, which established his reputation as the best military engineer in South America.

He joined the revolutionary party against Spain in 1810, took a prominent part in the war, and eventually became second in command of the Republican Army.

The military revolution of 1814, which placed Carrera in power, was fatal to McKenna.

One of Carrera's first acts was to banish McKenna, who accordingly left for Buenos Ayres. While there, he met Luis Carrera, the dictator's brother ; the result was a quarrel followed by a duel, in which McKenna was killed on November 21st, 1814.

This gallant Irishman was buried in the cloister of the

Convent of Santo Domingo, Buenos Ayres, where a monument was erected to his memory. One of his grandsons, Benjamin V. McKenna, has achieved international distinction as a public man and Chilean historian.

The most notable Empire builder of British birth, in Chilean annals, was the famous naval hero, Lord Cochrane. In 1818, being somewhat under a cloud with the British authorities, he accepted the invitation of the Chilean Government to take charge of the navy, which in less than two years had grown from one sixty-four gun frigate, the "Lautaro," commanded by Captain O'Brien, an Irishman, who had served as a lieutenant in the British Navy, to eight well equipped vessels, two of which, the "Maria Isabella," afterwards known as the "O'Higgins," of forty-eight guns, and another, were Spanish prizes.

When Cochrane arrived at Valparaiso he was despatched to Callao with instructions to capture the Spanish fleet. His first efforts were unsuccessful; he went on a cruise along the Chilean coast, whence he took many prizes, but failed to injure seriously the Spanish.

Lord Cochrane arrived for the second time off the Bay of Callao with his squadron, on the 29th October, 1820. He was not a man to remain long inactive. He proceeded to reconnoitre the defences of the harbour, which had been reported as impregnable. The strength of the batteries, indeed, to use his own words, "were superior to those of Algiers or Gibraltar, rendering any attempt against the naval forces of the enemy impracticable, no matter with what number of ships of war."

On land the harbour was guarded by a range of strong forts, extending along the shore. Directly under the guns of the Castle, as the principal fort was called, lay the "Esmeralda," a large 40-gun frigate, the last naval hope of the Spaniards in Peru. Near her were moored two schooners, two brigs-of-war, and three armed merchantmen, Around these, ranged in a semi-circle for their protection, were fifteen gunboats. The whole force was further defended by a strong, floated boom, formed of spars chained

together, which was open only on the north side, close to the batteries on shore.

This great defensive power rendered the harbour of Callao impregnable against any fleet. Lord Cochrane determined, therefore, on a night attack in boats. The capture of the "Esmeralda" was his principal object, although his plan included the cutting out of as many of the other vessels as possible.

Having resolved on this daring attempt, Lord Cochrane announced his intention to the officers and seaman of his squadron. All on board were anxious to take part in the attack; but two hundred and fifty men were deemed sufficient for the service, and the rest were reluctantly compelled to remain behind. The officers chosen were Captains Crosbie, Guise and Forster, all Britishers, the former of whom was to command the first division of boats. The night of the 5th November was appointed for the attempt, the preceding night being spent in exercising the men and instructing them in the plan of attack. Lord Cochrane issued a memorandum giving minute details of the plan he had drawn up. Officers and men were to be dressed in white jackets or shirts, so as to enable them to distinguish each other in the darkness. The watchword was to be "Gloria," the countersign "Victoria!" He also promised his men the value of all vessels taken from the enemy, together with the reward offered by the Government of Peru for the capture of any Spanish ships.

At ten o'clock on the night of the 5th, the boats, to the number of fourteen, prepared to set out on their hazardous enterprise. Previous to quitting the fleet, Lord Cochrane addressed the men in characteristic fashion. Knowing that the greater number were Englishmen, he touched on a topic which he knew would appeal to them, and rouse their spirit. The 5th of November was the anniversary of a day notable in English history; and the admiral, after declaring that he had fixed on it for that special reason, exclaimed, "Now my lads, we shall give them such a gunpowder plot as they shall not forget in a hurry!"

Outside the boom were anchored two neutral warships—the United States frigate “Macedonia,” and the English frigate “Hyperion.” As the boats, in two parallel lines, approached through the darkness, the sentinel on the “Macedonia” hailed them. The officer in charge of the deck, however, who either knew or suspected the design, ordered him to keep silence. While the boats were passing, several of the American officers leaned over the side, whispering to the crews their wishes for success. The officers on board the English frigate, actuated by a more rigid sense of duty, remained invisible, though they were aware of what was passing, and that countrymen of their own were about to engage in a desperate night attack.

The boom was reached at midnight. Though the Spanish relied greatly upon it as a means of defence, it was forced without much difficulty; and Lord Cochrane who, as usual, was foremost in every daring attempt of this kind, led the way into the harbour. Though perfect silence had been maintained, the leading boat had not proceeded far, when she was hailed by the nearest gunboat. Lord Cochrane’s answer was to spring on board, hold a pistol to the head of the officer in charge, and threaten to shoot him dead if he gave the alarm. The officer and those of the crew who happened to be on deck, were completely overawed. Leaving them in charge of some of his men, the admiral rowed on, and in a few minutes his boat was alongside the “Esmeralda.”

Lord Cochrane was the first to spring up the gangway, the sentinel stationed at the top of which he instantly shot. No sooner had he done so than a second sentry fired at him, wounding him in the thigh, though not dangerously. This man was at once cut down by the Admiral’s coxswain, who was always at his elbow in the thickest of every fight. Without paying the least attention to his wound, Lord Cochrane stepped boldly on deck; and, turning to the boats which were now clustering alongside, cried, “Up, my lads! She’s ours!”

By this time Captain Guise had boarded the frigate on

the opposite side, and met the Admiral midway on the quarter-deck. Captain Crosbie had been equally active. The boats' crews swarmed on board in every direction; and the after part of the frigate, where there was a guard of marines, was carried at the point of the sword.

Lord Cochrane soon found that he was confronted by a far more difficult task than he had anticipated. The crew of the frigate were not taken by complete surprise. Though asleep at their posts, the very first shot effectually aroused them, and they opened a hot fire on the boarders. Indeed, had it not been for the prompt assistance of Captain Guise and Captain Crosbie, who rushed on the defenders with their men, the Admiral must undoubtedly have been killed, for during the space of the first minute or so he stood practically alone.

The fight now became general. The Spaniards offered a brave and determined resistance, but were driven back before the onslaught of Lord Cochrane and his men, and retreated to the fore-castle. Here they rallied, and made a desperate stand for upwards of a quarter of an hour. A fresh party from the boats came to the assistance of the assailants at this juncture, and the defenders were forced to abandon the fore-castle.

All the time the fight was raging, the batteries on shore kept up an incessant fire; but owing to the darkness and the uncertainty as to the precise point of attack, the shots fell wide. Indeed, the English and American warships, which lay outside the boom, were both struck. To get out of range, they were compelled to weigh anchor and stand out to sea.

The crew of the "Esmeralda" now took up their position on the main deck, and here the last stand was made. Sword in hand, Lord Cochrane led his men against them. They clashed and fought furiously, the Admiral ever in the thickest of the conflict.

It was at this point that a reckless deed was performed by the crew of one of the Spanish gun-boats, anchored close astern of the "Esmeralda," which proved deadly

alike to friend and foe. They fired a shot into the frigate. It tore up the deck under the very feet of her commander, Captain Coig, wounding him severely. It also killed three men, two of whom were of Lord Cochrane's party. On firing the shot, the crew of the gunboat immediately abandoned her, and sought refuge on board one of the other vessels.

The last stand of the Spaniards on the main deck was of brief duration. Desperate as was their resistance, they were forced to give way, and were either killed or made prisoners. Before one o'clock the frigate was completely in the hands of the assailants, having been captured in little more than half an hour.

Lord Cochrane, who had bound a handkerchief round his wounds, stationed himself upon one of the guns on the quarter-deck. From this position he gave orders to cut the cables of the frigate and steer her out of harbour. Owing to the fact that he was wounded, and having experienced a far greater resistance than he had anticipated, he did not deem it prudent to remain longer, or attempt to clear the harbour of the other vessels. He knew that in losing the "Esmeralda" the Spanish naval defence was practically at an end, for the remaining vessels were of small account.

The batteries on shore still kept up a hot fire, but the frigate, skilfully steered and handled, glided out of the harbour without receiving any great damage. Indeed, except for the shot fired by the Spanish gunboat, she had sustained very little injury. Not only were the Spaniards deprived of their best fighting ship, therefore, but she would prove a valuable addition to the Chilean navy.

An hour or two later the prize was safely anchored alongside Lord Cochrane's Squadron. At three o'clock the Admiral stepped again on board his flagship. Not till then would he allow his wound to be examined and dressed, though he had lost a considerable quantity of blood.

On examining the papers of the "Esmeralda" it was found that the loss to the Spaniards amounted to one

hundred and fifty-seven men killed, besides many wounded. The victors on the other hand, had only lost eleven killed and twenty-eight wounded. The captured frigate had on board three months' provisions, as well as a supply of cordage and other articles to last for years.

This splendid deed of valour on the part of Lord Cochrane and his men destroyed the naval power of Spain in South American waters. It established the prestige of the Chilean Navy, and Cochrane became the idol of the Chileans.

The coolness of the Cochrane family under fire is well illustrated by the following passage from Miller's memoirs. It refers to an affair at Callao subsequent to the Esmeralda episode.

"He was sitting astride upon the Hammock according to his usual custom. Miller was standing on a carronade upon the quarter-deck close to the admiral, who said: 'There comes a shot straight for us, but don't move for it will strike below us;' and it entered just underneath, at the lower part of the very port above which both had placed themselves. The shot struck off the head of a Marine, who had dodged to avoid it, and wounded four seamen . . . Tom Cochrane, a son of the admiral, only two years of age, was walking about in the quarter-deck when the shot scattered the brains of the marine in the child's face. He ran up to his father, and with an air of hereditary self-possession and unconcern, called out: 'Indeed, Papa, the shot did not touch me; indeed, I am not hurt.' He was set to hand powder to the gunners to keep him amused. The boy had smuggled himself on board, and had not been missed before the vessel sailed."*

After the close of the Chilean War, Cochrane entered the service of Brazil, and defeated the Portuguese fleet. He then assumed command of the Greek Navy, which was the pioneer steam navy of the world, in 1827, owing to the persistency with which Cochrane advocated the claims of steam, against the prevailing naval opinion of that period. Eventually, in 1832, he was allowed to rejoin the British

*Miller's "Memoirs of General Miller." Vol 1. p 208.

Navy, with the rank of Rear-Admiral, and at once began to urge the superiority of steam upon the Lords of the Admiralty.

As early as 1811 he devised a "secret war plan" which he pledged himself never to use except in the service of his own country. This was pronounced to be "infallible, irresistible, but inhuman." During the Crimean War he urged it upon the attention of the Government, but on every occasion it was put on one side as being "too terrible and inhuman" although it was clearly admitted to be capable of reducing Cronstadt or Sebastopol to a heap of ashes.

Lord Cochrane became Earl of Dundonald in 1831, through the death of his father. Before his death in 1860 he had acquired the rank of Admiral, and had seen all his cherished ideas concerning steam, adopted, not only by England, but by the Navies of the world.

To this day, his name is perpetuated in the navy he may be said to have created for Chile, and it is a rule in the Chilean navy that a battleship shall always bear the heroic Scotman's name.

Another famous fighter in the War of Independence was that brave Kentish soldier, William Miller. He was born at Wingham, Kent, in 1793, and served in the campaigns of 1811-14 in Spain, against the French, and afterwards in the American War. He then went to La Plata, formed the Buenos Ayres artillery, and distinguished himself during the struggle for independence.

Miller served under Lord Cochrane on the "O'Higgins" as commander of the Marines, and fought in nearly all the battles of the Revolutionary war. He was repeatedly wounded, and nearly lost his life at the battle of Pisco. In 1826 he returned to England, and received the freedom of the city of Canterbury, and, on his return to Peru, became Commander-in-Chief of the Peruvian Army.

Changing political circumstances caused his banishment, and in 1843 he was made British Consul-General in the Pacific, a post he held for years.

Miller died on board H.M.S. Naiad, then in Callao harbour

on October 31st, 1861 ; as he had expressed the wish to be taken on board, in order that he should die under the British flag. He was buried in the English cemetery at Bella Vista, Callao, all the church bells in the town tolling, an honour never before paid to any Protestant in Peru.

Patricio or Patrick Lynch, the famous Chilean Vice-Admiral, although born at Valparaiso in 1825, was the son of an Irishman. He served with distinction as a naval cadet against Peru and Bolivia in 1838, and, acting on the instructions of his Government, joined the British Navy in 1840 as Lieutenant, and took part in the China War.

On his return to Chile, he served with distinction against the Spanish in the war of 1865, became Governor of Valparaiso, and commanded a Chilean war vessel. His campaigns during the Peruvian war are the most renowned in Chilean history. After the battle of Miraflores, Congress appointed him Rear-Admiral and Commander-in-Chief of the Chilean army, and eventually in 1883 Lynch became Vice-Admiral, the highest rank in the Chilean Navy. Two years afterwards he was appointed Minister to Spain, but twelve months later was recalled to take charge of the Chilean Legation at Lima. He died, however, on his passage homewards, near the Canary Islands.

As soon as the news of his death reached Chile, the ironclad "Blanco Encalada" was sent to transport his remains to Santiago ; where they were buried with magnificent public honours on May 14th, 1887. Space, unfortunately, does not permit even brief records of the less distinguished British heroes being recorded in these pages, but sufficient have been enumerated to show the important part that men of British birth have taken in creating modern Chile.

Englishmen, Irishmen and Scotchmen have shed their blood alongside the native patriots of this beautiful land, thereby creating and cementing a friendship which should prove eternal.

CHAPTER VI

CHILE'S ABORIGINAL INHABITANTS

Primitive Inhabitants—The Aborigines at the Period of the Conquest—Ercilla's Famous Poem—The Araucanians—Diego de Rosalles and Ovalles on the Araucanians—Their Method of Preserving Records—Superstitions—Marriage Customs—Drunkenness—The Survival of the Strongest—Disinclination to Work—A French King of Araucania—The Work of the Missionaries—The Araucanians of to-day—Their Hospitality to Strangers—Funeral Customs—Travel Safe in Araucania—The Indians of Patagonia—Their Poverty and Wretchedness—Cannibalism—Infantile Mortality—Missionary Efforts.

Concerning the origin of the primitive inhabitants of Chile, the anthropologists are considerably at variance. Whence the Indian first came; whether from Brazil, as some believe, or from some of the innumerable islands, the remains of a now submerged tract of land that once united America with Asia, none can say. In the extreme south, within the Antarctic circle of life, is still to be found a miserable remnant of a very primitive race, the Yaghans, who probably pushed south along the coast from the region of the Behring Straits, to lands still more inhospitable than those they left. These people, who are rapidly dying out, live, upon the sea-shore, a life of naked misery. Without clothing, or weapons, or utensils, without domestic animals of any kind, except the dog, they roam from place to place, existing upon shell-fish, sea-birds, eggs, dead seals, or whatever other edibles the flotsam of the sea, or their little skill may bring them. At intervals, when the wind, for a while, is stilled over these ever troubled seas, the naked savage, with his wife and children, will fare forth, in his frail birch canoe, towards happier hunting grounds. Sometimes he reaches them in safety; sometimes the sea has him and his; and one more family of the Yaghans has vanished. When favourable circumstances rendered a long stay possible, the Yaghan dust-heaps swelled gradually, until, on Elizabeth Island, we find a mound 100 feet long

and twelve to fifteen feet high, while in some places these débris are so deeply covered with sea-sand as to suggest the theory that the primitive race who produced it must have lived there "before the land was submerged and then again raised to the present level."* This solution may be the correct one, for, as Mr. Scott Elliot points out, the Yaghan is still pleistocene in the manner of his life. He cannot live in clothes. Trousers are death to him, as surely as famine is death to his old woman, whom he strangles, in order that his dogs may live. "Doggie catch otter, old woman no."† The two hundred or so that survive of these primitives, are to be found on the western coasts of Tierra del Fuego. In the archipelagoes further north are found the remains of a more highly civilised tribe, the Alakalufs, the Chonos Indians, and the Chiloe Islanders, who occupy what might be described as a half-way position between the Yaghan and the dominant native race, the Araucanian. Higher still in faculty come a hunting tribe, occupying the grassy hills, and open bush of eastern Tierra del Fuego. These are the Onas, a people expert with the bow and arrow, and very clever at stalking and tracking game. In order to make themselves as little conspicuous as possible, when hunting, they daub their faces and hands with colours "corresponding to their environment." They encourage hardihood, and set their boys severe tests of endurance, such as inserting in the flesh of the arm, and setting light to, a pine splinter, which has to be extinguished by the roasting flesh. If the young Ona fails to talk and laugh unconcernedly throughout the whole operation, he is judged not to have come well out of the test.

These natives, though interesting from the anthropological point of view, compare ill with the animals about them for dignity, cleanliness, and beauty; and are pathetic examples of the awful harm that can be wrought by contact with civilization, especially with so degenerate a civili-

* "Chile," G. F. Scott Elliot, p 16. † Ibid, p 16.



SAN MARTIN, SANTIAGO

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zation as that introduced by the Spaniards of the sixteenth century.

We are fortunate in possessing a very complete account of the Indians of Chile, from the time of the Spanish conquest, thanks to Ercilla's famous poem, "La Araucana," and the histories of the Jesuit fathers, Diego de Rosalles, and Ovalles, also of Molina, who in their books give long and careful descriptions of the Indians, their customs and characteristics. It must be remembered that there were numerous nations of Chilean aborigines, but only the Araucanians survive to-day in a state of semi-dependence, in any considerable numbers, in the district south of the Bio-Bio river, as far as the Gulf of Reloncavi.

The tribes living in the north of Chile, had been subject to the Incas of Peru, at least a century before the Spanish conquest. After the downfall of the Incas they offered no resistance to the conquering Spaniards, and gradually by inter-marriage became merged with the conquerors.

The tribes that opposed the Spanish invasion were termed Moluches or "warrior people." The inhabitants of the country north of the Copiapo were called the Atacamas, who lived in the desert, and the Changos who dwell by the coast. the inhabitants of the country between the Copiapo and Bio-Bio rivers were called Picunches or "North men." Between the Bio-Bio and Valdivia, the natives were termed Pehuenches, or "men of the pines" from the vast forests of Chilean pines or monkey trees—the seeds of which were an important item of their diet—that covered the country, and in the far and almost unexplored creeks of Magellans Straits, dwell the Patagonians, Fuegians, Yaaganes, Onas, and others, whose rank is extremely low in the social status of mankind.

The "men of the pines" were known to the Incas by the name of Aucas, or "rebels" because of the stubborn opposition they offered to their civilised neighbours' efforts to subdue them. The Spaniards termed them Araucanos, or Araucanians; and on account of the fierce resistance they offered to the Spaniards, these savages hold the

foremost place in Chilean annals, and completely eclipse the warlike records of their fellow barbarians. From the very first, European attention was drawn to this Indian people "with bodies of iron and souls of tigers" by Ercilla's romantic poem "La Araucana." Ercilla placed these savages upon the pedestal of romance. He is always their eulogist, and depicts them as possessing all the virtues and few of the vices of their kind.

His description may be relied upon as being accurate, as to their warlike character, and the social life and customs of these savage "men of the pines." The early Jesuits, especially Father Diego de Rosalles, the historian of Chile, and Alonso de Ovalles, give, however, considerable information concerning the Indians who submitted to the Spanish conquest, and throw some light upon the Araucanians.

From their long intercourse with the natives, these Jesuits were able to obtain fairly accurate views upon their traditions, social customs, and belief. Ovalles, writing in 1649, describes the method by which the Indians preserved their traditions, and maintained the annals of their race. From this description, it will be seen that the records of the South American Indians are fairly trustworthy, even when they go back prior to the Spanish conquest. It is to be hoped that, before civilisation improves these Indians out of existence, some student will collect their traditions and folklore, which might also throw new and valuable light on pre-Columbian America. The method by which they preserve their records is thus related by Ovalles:—

"They can neither read nor write among themselves, but as to their way of remembering and keeping account, they have their Quipoes, which is a sort of strings of different bigness, in which they make knots of divers colours, by which they remember, and can give an account of things committed to their charge. With these they will give an account of a great flock, and tell which have died of sickness, or other accidents, and which have been spent in the family, and for the shepherds; and they will tell every

particular that happened on such and such occasions, and of what they did and said. When they go to confess these Quipoes serve them to remember their sins, and tell them with distinction and clearness ; they have besides excellent memories of their own, and do remember things of very ancient date. . . . For proof of the care they take to keep the memory of remarkable passages, I must relate here what I learned from Father Diego Torres Bollo, a very extraordinary man, both for holiness of life and skill in government.

“ This great man returning from Rome (whither he had been sent as procurator of the Province of Peru) to found the Province of Quito, he saw in a place where four ways met, an Indian who to the sound of a drum was singing a great many things, all alone in his own tongue ; the father called one of his company who understood it, and asked him what the Indian meant by that action ; who told the father that that Indian was as it were, the register of that country, who to keep up the memory of what had passed in it from the deluge to that time, was bound every holiday to repeat it by the sound of a drum, and singing, as he was then doing. He was moreover obliged to instruct others in the same way, that there might be a succession of men to do the same thing after he had gone ; and that which he at this time is singing is, that in such a year there had been there a white man called Thomas, who did great wonders, preaching a new law, which in time was lost and forgotten. And thus we may see the manner by which the Indians supply the want of books and writing.”

At the time of the Spanish Conquest, unlike the Indians who were subject to the Incas, who were nearly as civilised as their Peruvian neighbours, the Araucanians were almost entirely unclad, and their food was mostly eaten raw, a custom that their descendants to-day frequently perpetuate. They dwelt in little huts, built of boughs and skins, termed “ rucas,” which are still common in Southern Chile, and lived on potatoes, fruit, nuts, fish, and the flesh of animals. Ercilla relates that they fermented a kind of wine

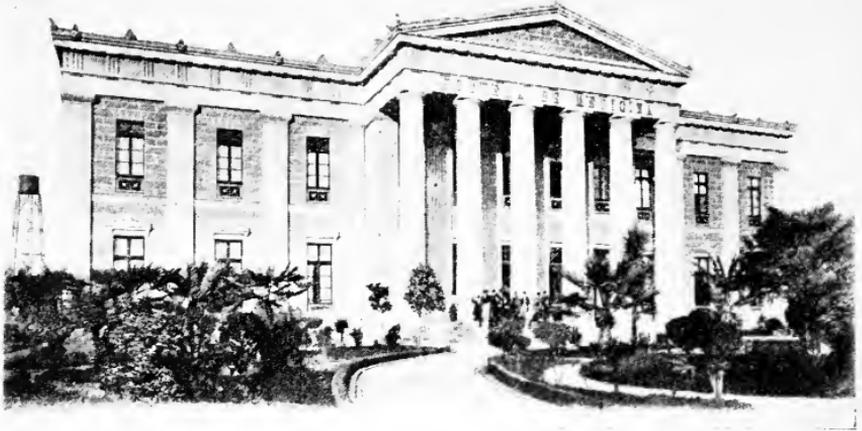
from the fruits growing in their territory, which, although intoxicating, was apparently not particularly harmful to their health. To-day, like most primitive people who have come under the influence of the white man, they have become slaves to alcohol, over-indulgence in which is causing this race gradually to disappear. In southern parts many of them fall victims to a form of consumption, without cough, a sweating sickness which carries the native off very swiftly.

When Valdivia invaded Araucania, it is estimated that the population was upwards of 300,000. To-day not more than from 50,000 to 100,000 survive. War was the principal occupation of these savages, and they certainly deserve every praise for their cunning and bravery. Their cruelty, when at war, apparently knew no bounds, and they were adepts at all forms of torture. They practised cannibalism, a custom that still exists, in times of scarcity, in the far south, amongst the Ongas and Fuegians, and they manufacture flutes and other musical instruments from the bones of their enemies.

The Araucanians are generally considered to be finer natural fighters, and more dangerous adversaries than any native race in history. Their impetuosity, courage, discipline, and doggedness alike, were such that death even was hardly able to overcome them. Take, for example, the case of the famous Indian General, Mullalelmo, who, when he died, in 1570, ordered his body to be burned, that, in the smoke, he might rise to the clouds, and there continue to fight the Spaniards who had ascended before him. At the same time he nominated an earthly successor, in order that the war might be waged in both elements.

In the matter of arms and armour, they were ahead of many native races. Though uniform was unknown to them, they wore, beneath their usual dress, breastplates or cuirasses of leather, hardened by a special process. Before the arrival of the Spaniards their weapons were no more than the primitive bow or sling; but they soon learned to fashion swords and lances for their cavalry, to

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arm their infantry with pikes or with iron-pointed clubs. They became adepts, too, at closing promptly with the enemy, so that hand to hand fighting might prevent the effective use of firearms. Molina says that they made great, though unsuccessful, efforts to discover the secret of gunpowder, in support of which statement, he tells the following story. "The Araucanians on first seeing negroes with the Spaniards, imagined that they prepared from them the powder which they used. Soon after, having taken one of these unfortunate men, they first covered him with stripes from head to foot, and afterwards burned him to a coal to obtain the so much wished for secret, but were soon convinced of the fallacy of their chymical principles."

Having failed to discover the secret, they had to content themselves with capturing from the Spaniards as much powder and as many muskets as possible, which they managed occasionally to use with considerable effect.

On march, the Araucanians travelled very lightly equipped, taking with them no provision, except a small bag of meal, which, diluted with water, was enough to keep them active, until they could feed suitably at their enemy's expense. They knew, too, the benefit of entrenchments, of watch-fires—sometimes used to deceive the enemy—and of sentries. In fact they were extraordinarily well-versed in the art of warfare, as it was known in the time of the Spaniards. "When an action becomes necessary, they separate the cavalry into two wings, and place the infantry in the centre, divided into several battalions, the file being composed alternately of pikemen and soldiers armed with clubs, in such a manner that between every pike a club is always to be found. The Vice Toqui has the command of the right wing, and that of the left is committed to an experienced officer. The Toqui is present everywhere as occasion may require, and exhorts his men with much eloquence to fight valiantly for their liberties. But of this there appears little need, as the soldiers manifest such ardour, that their officers have

much more difficulty in restraining their impetuosity than in exciting them to action. Fully impressed with the opinion, that to die in battle is the greatest honour that a man can acquire in this life, on the signal for combat being given, they advance desperately, shouting in a terrific manner, and notwithstanding the slaughter made among them by the cannon, endeavour to penetrate the centre of the enemy. Though they know full well that the first ranks will be exposed to almost certain destruction, they eagerly contend with each other for these posts of honour, or to serve as leaders of the files. As soon as the first line is cut down, the second occupies its place, and then the third, until they finally succeed in breaking the front ranks of the enemy. In the midst of their fury they nevertheless preserve the strictest order, and perform all the evolutions directed by their officers. The most terrible of them are the club-bearers, who, like so many Herculeses, destroy with their iron-pointed maces all they meet in their way."

Very drastic was the Araucanians' method of dealing with prisoners.

"The officers, surrounded by the soldiers, form a circle, in the centre of which, in the midst of four poniards representing the four *Uthalmapus*, is placed the official axe of the Toqui. The unfortunate prisoner, as a mark of ignominy, is then led in upon a horse deprived of his ears and tail, and placed near the axe, with his face turned towards his country. They afterwards give him a handful of small sticks, and a sharp stake with which they oblige him to dig a hole in the ground, in which they order him to cast the sticks one by one, repeating the names of the principal warriors of his country, while at the same time, the surrounding soldiers load these abhorred names with the bitterest execrations. He is then ordered to cover the hole, as if to bury therein the reputation and valour of their enemies whom he has named. After this ceremony the Toqui, or one of his bravest companions, to whom he relinquishes the honour of the execution, dashes out the

brains of the prisoner with a club. The heart is immediately taken out by two attendants, and presented palpitating to the general, who sucks a little of the blood, and passes it to his officers, who repeat in succession the same ceremony ; in the meantime he fumigates with tobacco smoke from his pipe, the four cardinal points of the circle. The soldiers strip the flesh from the bones, and make of them flutes ; then cutting off the head, carry it round upon a pike amidst the acclamations of the multitude, while, stamping in measured pace, they thunder out their dreadful war-song, accompanied by the mournful sound of these horrid instruments. This barbarous festival is terminated by applying to the mangled body the head of a sheep, which is succeeded by a scene of riot and intoxication."

The Araucanians bear considerable resemblance to the red man of the North, and are much lighter in their complexions than any other nations of South American Indians ; their women are often by no means bad-looking, even to European eyes. The men marry as many wives as they can afford to purchase, the women being the property of their fathers, to be sold to the highest bidder. The Caciques, or chiefs, often have as many as twenty wives, who are regarded as tokens of their husband's power and influence amongst his people.

An old writer has thus described their appearance, which has in no way altered since his day :—

" In stature they are somewhat less than the ordinary Spaniard, but very strong chested ; arms and legs well formed and strong ; hair always smooth and long ; the women especially have their natural hair for adornment only, and cultivate it carefully to its full length, even in some to below the waist. It is black on head and body, but rather different from the mulattos or the other Indians of America, for, in spite of their dark shade, they incline to red, as displaying abundance of blood. The head and face are round ; the countenance inflexible ; the nostrils full, but not so much as the Ethiopians ; the beard thin the palm of the hand and fingers are short and thick,

the foot small and strongly made. Altogether the constitution both of body and countenance is the most suitable indication of courage and fortitude."

Molina confirms exactly this description. He adds, moreover, that they have "small animated eyes, full of expression, a nose rather flat, a handsome mouth, even and white teeth. . . . Like the Tartars they have scarce any beard, and the smallest hair is never to be discerned in their faces, from the care they take to pluck out the little that appear; they esteem it very impolite to have a beard, calling the Europeans, by way of reproach, *the long beards*. The same attention is paid to removing it from their bodies, where its growth is more abundant; that of their heads is thick and black, but rather coarse; they permit it to grow to a great length, and wind it in tresses around their heads; of this they are as proud and careful as they are averse to beards, nor could a greater affront be offered them than to cut it off."*

Although they are a dwindling people, weakly men and women are almost unknown amongst them, owing to the custom of the Araucanian women, to leave their "rucas" shortly before the birth of their children, and to live alone on the banks of an icy mountain stream, until the little one arrives. The child is no sooner born than the mother plunges it into the icy cold water, and then, wrapping a few rags about it, straps it on a little board, which she slings across her shoulders, and returns to her ruca. Babies are always kept fastened to boards until they are able to walk, to ensure them growing upright and strong. Weakly children, it will readily be understood, promptly succumb to this drastic treatment, hence the survival of the strongest may be said to prevail in Araucania. The children are suckled until they are two or three years of age, and the boys are treated as men almost as soon as they can walk and talk. The only education they receive from their fathers, which it is true is the only education that they are

* Smith's "Temperate Chile." p. 351.

capable of imparting, is a physical one. So rigorously are they exercised in walking, running, and swimming, as well as in the use of bows and arrows, lances and clubs, that little boys of five and six can run for miles without fatigue, and swim broad and icy cold rivers with ease.

The fathers never correct their children, and they are encouraged to drink to excess, on the occasion of great feasts, as soon as they can walk. Until the Chilean Government assumed authority, which was by no means general until twenty years ago in Araucania, the Indians had perfect right to kill their wives or children. This very rarely occurred, except after drunken quarrels. The women, however, were frequently beaten at the slightest provocation by their husbands and sons; in fact, the fathers encouraged the boys to beat their mothers, as it gave them courage and spirit.

One Araucanian parent spoke with obvious pride of his "little nipper," aged six, to a missionary, who enquired after the young hopeful's welfare. "Oh my son, he's already quite a man; he gets insensibly drunk and beats his mother!"

These savages had a belief that they originally lived in "a land of sweet delights." Their ancestors were extremely wicked, even to Araucanian ideas, and as they refused to amend their ways, or to listen to the admonitions of two heavenly youths who appeared amongst them mysteriously, the ground opened, and water spurted forth in such quantities that the whole valley was submerged, and the people, with the exception of a man and a woman, were drowned. These survivors became the ancestors of the Araucanians.

The warriors used to eat the hearts of their enemies in order to obtain their courage, and would adorn themselves with foxes' tails for the purpose of acquiring cunning. In the belief that the dead are always about them, they invariably, to this day, spill a little liquor before drinking, "to quench the thirst of the spirits," and they bury their dead with their arms or, if women, with their cooking

utensils, as well as food and a bottle of spirits. A fire is always lighted near the grave, in order that the departed shall not suffer from hunger and cold in the new life. The dead are waked for several days before they are buried.

The religion of the Araucanians, if they can rightly be said to have possessed any, is no more than the usual crude animism of savage races. They acknowledge a supreme being, the author of all things, whom they call Pillan, a word derived from pulli, or pilli, meaning the soul or supreme essence, and also meaning Thunder. Below Pillan come a number of lesser divinities, the Toqui of the spiritual world, who appear to have graciously modelled their constitution upon that of the Chilean savages, which exacts from its subjects no particular services nor acts of fealty. The Chilean native, therefore, accords to his deities only a moderate degree of veneration. He stops short of temples and idols, and he offers sacrifices in the form of animals or of tobacco, only in times of great calamity or upon the conclusion of a peace. They firmly believe, however, in divinations by the flight of birds, and the Araucanian who, in battle will face death without a tremor, will shudder at the sight of an owl. He dreads his sorcerers, too, who, after a day passed in weaving incantations in the darkness of the cave, will emerge at night in the form of a terrible bird, ready to pierce his enemy with invisible arrows.

“ As soon as one of their natives dies, his friends and relations seat themselves upon the ground around the body, and weep for a long time; they afterwards expose it, clothed in the best dress of the deceased, upon a high bier, called pilleray, where it remains during the night, which they pass near it in weeping, or in eating and drinking with those who come to console them. This meeting is called *curicahuin*, the black entertainment, as that colour is among them, as well as the Europeans, the symbol of mourning. The following day, sometimes not until the second or third after the decease of the person, they carry the corpse in procession to the altum, or burying place of

the family, which is usually situated in a wood or on a hill. Two young men on horse-back, riding full speed, precede the procession. The bier is carried by the principal relations and is surrounded by women, who bewail the deceased in the manner of the hired mourners among the Romans, while another woman, who walks behind, strews ashes in the road, to prevent the soul returning to its late abode. On arriving at the place of burial, the corpse is laid upon the surface of the ground, and surrounded, if a man with his arms, if a woman, with female implements, and with a great quantity of provisions, and with vessels filled with chicha and with wine, which, according to their opinions, are necessary to subsist them during their passage to another world. They sometimes even kill a horse and inter it in the same ground. After these ceremonies they take leave with many tears of the deceased, wishing him a prosperous journey, and cover the corpse with earth and stones, placed in a pyramidal form, upon which they pour a great quantity of chicha." (Molina).

Those who imagine that the old ferryman Charon is a purely Graeco-Roman concept, may be surprised to hear that the Araucanian Gods have a similar official in their employ; the difference being that in this case Charon is an old woman, who, in the form of a whale, does transport duty. Whether the passenger travelled inside or out, I cannot say; only this Molina tells us, that, before Jonah comes to the whale, he has to pay toll to another malicious old lady, who, if she is refused, helps herself to one of the passenger's eyes.

The life of the departed spirit, according to the Araucanian theory, is, in fact, a continuance of the old life under new conditions. "When the spirits of their countrymen return, as they frequently do, they fight furiously with those of their enemies, whenever they meet with them in the air, and these combats are the origin of tempests, thunder and lightning. Not a storm happens upon the Andes or the ocean, which they do not ascribe to a battle between the souls of their fellow countrymen and those

of the Spaniards; they say that the roaring of the wind is the trampling of their horses, the noise of the thunder that of their drums, and the flashes of lightning the fire of the artillery. If the storm takes its course towards the Spanish territory, they affirm that their spirits have put to flight those of the Spaniards, and exclaim triumphantly, *Inavimen, inavimen, puen, laguwimen!* Pursue them, friends, pursue them, kill them! If the contrary happens, they are greatly afflicted, and call out in consternation, *Yavulumen, puen, namuntumen!* Courage, friends, be firm!"

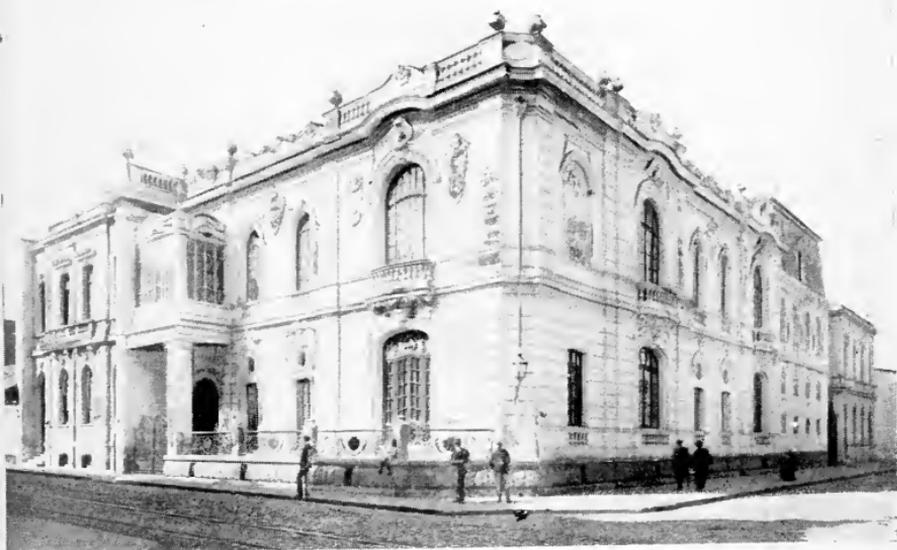
Unfortunately, it has now become extremely difficult to separate the genuine Indian beliefs from the rudiments of Christianity that intercourse with missionaries has imparted to them.

Strange to say, although they have been for more than three centuries in proximity to civilisation, the Araucanians, despite the zealous efforts of missionaries, are little impressed with the teachings of Christianity, and still retain many of the savage customs and superstitions of their ancestors. They have, however, made some material progress with regard to farming and the simple industrial arts. The early Jesuits were the first to teach them European methods of agriculture, and now many Araucanians own large farms, the land of which is cultivated either by women or by Chilean rotos, or labourers, as most of the men would rather die than demean themselves by manual work! The women also weave the ponchos and mantas worn by the men, and make their own garments as well.

Despite their great natural intelligence, the Araucanians have never shown any aptitude for education. Writing and reading were always neglected by them; and the only arts for which they have shown any appreciation are poetry and rhetoric. The metrical compositions of their poets, "bards of speech," are, of course, very crude; but they are forcible and lively, and make up in idea and enthusiasm for faults of technique. Metaphor and allegory, some of it very bold and striking, is the soul of all their verse. But



PALACE OF VERGARA, ALAMEDA, SANTIAGO



A PRIVATE RESIDENCE IN SANTIAGO

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the art they hold in highest estimation, as did the ancient Romans, is oratory. It "is the high road to honour and the management of public affairs. The eldest son of an Ulmen, if he be deficient in this talent, is for that sole reason excluded from the right of succession, and one of his younger brothers, or the nearest relative, that he has, who is an able speaker, is substituted in his place. Their parents therefore accustom them from childhood to speak in public, and carry them to their national assemblies, where the best orators of the country display their eloquence. From hence is derived the attention which they generally pay to speak their language correctly, and to preserve it in its purity, taking great care to avoid the introduction of any foreign word, in which they are so particular, that whenever a foreigner settles among them, they oblige him to relinquish his name and take another in the Chilean language. The missionaries themselves are obliged to conform to this singular regulation, if they would obtain the public favour. They have much to endure from this excessive fastidiousness, as even while they are preaching, the audience will interrupt them, and with importunate rudeness correct the mistakes in language or pronunciation that escape them. . . . The speeches of their orators resemble those of the Asiatics, or more properly those of all barbarous nations. The style is highly figurative, allegorical, elevated, and replete with peculiar phrases and expressions that are employed only in similar compositions from which it is called *coyagtucan*, the style of parliamentary harangues."

In medical science they were no further advanced than one would expect; yet a section of their medicine men, some of them very skilful herbalists, did endeavour to cure diseases by the means of natural drugs and plants. Another section, however, known as the *Machis*, professed to resort to the time-honoured plan of practising upon the superstitions of their races. This is their mode of cure:

"The room of the sick person is lighted with a great

number of torches, and in a corner of it, among several branches of laurel is placed a large bough of cinnamon, to which is suspended the magical drum, near it is a sheep ready for sacrifice. The Machi directs the women who are present to sing with a loud voice a doleful song, accompanied with the sound of some little drums, which they beat at the same time. In the meantime, he fumigates three times with tobacco smoke the branch of cinnamon, the sheep, the singers, and the sick person. After this ceremony, he kills the sheep, takes out the heart, and after sucking the blood fixes it upon the branch of cinnamon. He next approaches the patient, and by certain charms pretends to open his belly to discover the poison that has been given him by the pretended sorcerer. He then takes the magical drum, which he beats, and sings, walking round with the women; all at once he falls to the ground like a maniac, making frightful gesticulations, and horrible contortions of his body, sometimes wildly opening his eyes then shutting them, appearing like one possessed of an evil spirit."

The character of the ancient Araucanians was not, on the whole, bad. Their chief fault, perhaps, was pride, begotten of the knowledge of their own valour. All other nations of the earth they looked upon with contempt, including the Spaniards, whom they nick-named *Chiopi*, vile soldiers. But among themselves they were kind and good tempered to a surprising degree, as evidenced by the fact that their language contained not less than six or seven words, all expressive of various degrees of friendship, a state of affairs, by the way, which must have given the Araucanian native many opportunities for the display of tact, or the reverse. One can imagine cases in which it must have been no easy task to pick out, from among the seven, the word fitting the occasion.

Their marriage ceremonies were crude, but are interesting as being a relic of the days when brides were carried off by force. "The husband, in concert with the father, conceals himself with some friends near the place

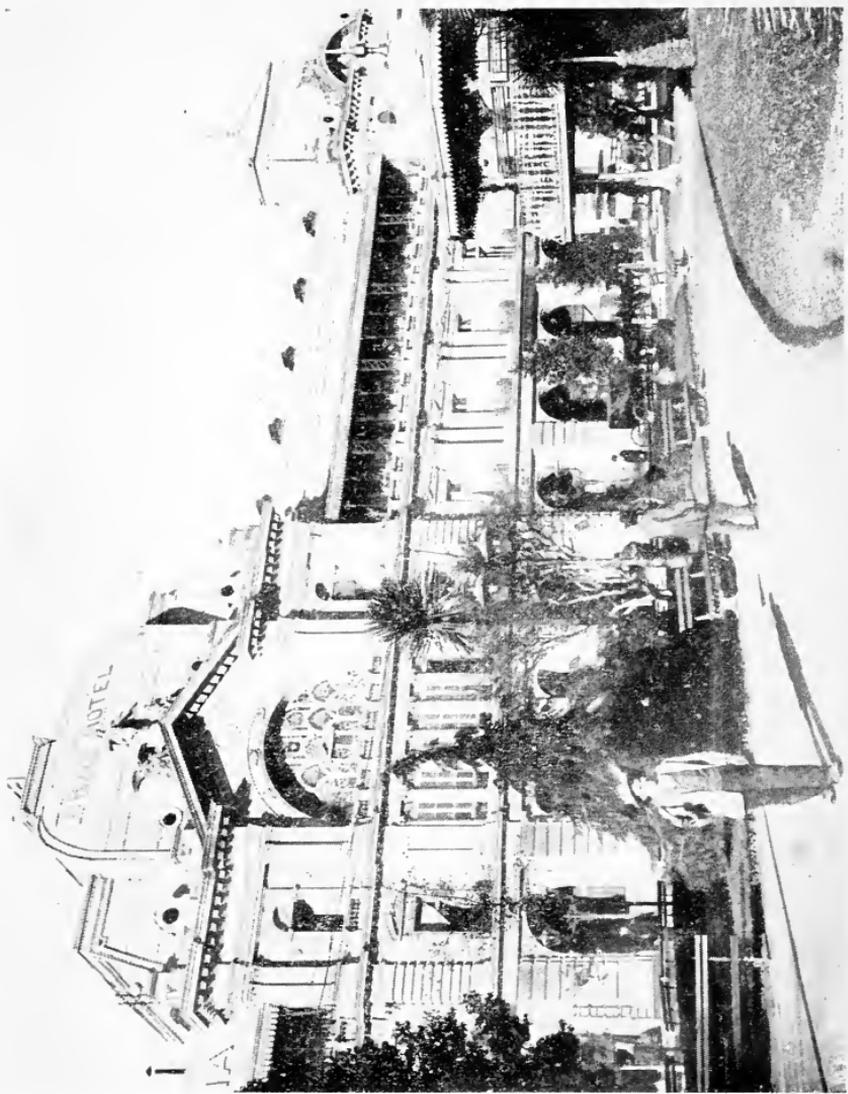
where they know the bride is to pass. As soon as she arrives she is seized and put on horseback behind the bridegroom, notwithstanding her pretended resistance, and her shrieks which are far from being serious. In this manner she is conducted with much noise to the house of her husband, where her relations are assembled, and receives the presents agreed upon, after having partaken of the nuptial entertainment." The Araucanian marries as many wives as he can afford to keep, or as many as he finds he can keep in order, not an easy task among women often bitterly jealous of one another. The husband "each night at supper makes known his choice of her who is to have the honour of sharing his bed, by directing her to prepare it. The others sleep in the same room, and no one is permitted to approach them. Strangers on their arrival are lodged in a cabin quite apart from the seraglio. . . . Each wife is obliged to present to her husband daily a dish prepared by herself in her separate kitchen or fire-place; for this reason the houses of the Araucanians have as many fires as there are women inhabiting them; whence, in inquiring of anyone how many wives he has, they make use of the following phrase as being the most polite, *muri onthalgeimi*, how many fires do you keep. Each wife is also obliged to furnish her husband yearly, besides his necessary clothing, with one of those cloaks, called *ponchos*, which form one of the principle branches of the Araucanian commerce."

The mode of living of the natives was in general very simple, except on the not infrequent occasions of a feast, when they let themselves go. "Fermented liquors," says Molina, "in the opinion of the Araucanians, form the principal requisites of an entertainment; for whenever they are not in plenty, whatever may be the quantity of provisions, they manifest great dissatisfaction, exclaiming *golingelai*, it is a wretched feast, there is no drink. These bacchanalian revels succeed each other almost without interruption throughout the year, as every man of property is ambitious of the honour of giving them, so that it may

be said that the Araucanians, when not engaged in war, pass the great part of their lives in revelry and amusement. Music, dancing, and play, form their customary diversions. As to the first, it scarcely deserves the name, not so much for the imperfection of the instruments, which are the same they make use of in war, but from their manner of singing which has in it something harsh and disagreeable to the ear, until one has been accustomed to it for a long time. They have several kinds of dances, which are lively and pleasing, and possess considerable variety. The women are rarely permitted to dance with the men, but form their companies apart, and dance to the sound of the same instruments."

One of the severest scourges of the natives, in the early days of Chile, was small-pox, a disease that was very prevalent, in spite of drastic measures taken by the natives to stamp it out. They would surround the infected man's hut, and bombard it with "fiery arrows," till ashes were all that remained of the building and its inhabitants. Whole villages were laid waste by the disease; wolves dragged the bodies from the huts; and in many cases the dogs were driven by hunger to devour the bodies of their own masters. Occasionally the father of a family, whom the infection had not yet reached, would call his relations around him, and suggest that in their own daggers lay the last means of escape from the evil spirit who had determined to wipe out their race. He would further offer, as a last act of affection, to do the deed himself, on behalf of any whose courage might fail them, and then, without delay, follow them to the land of rest.

It is a curious fact that, at the time of the Spanish Invasion, a race so intelligent as are the Araucanians, were little—if at all—advanced beyond the stone age, silver being the only metal that they worked with any skill. This art they were quite familiar with, and had developed a style peculiarly their own, quite different from that of the Incas of Peru. It was mainly phallic, as might be expected from a race that went straight to nature for



their gods. Ear-rings were fashioned in the shape of the crescent moon, the breast pin was a great silver sun, and the number of their boys and girls was engraved upon the silver breast-plate of the wives of the cacique. Very charming are the bracelets, made of minute silver beads strung together. "The silver stirrups of the richer Caciques, the long silver bugles threaded and hung with little silver bells, are all of a character especial to the people of Araucania. Silver they wisely choose as best suited to their dark, beautiful hair, which they carefully wash and keep tidy, and as suiting their dark complexions and favourite indigo-coloured cloths."* Much of their silver, by the way, was obtained from sources unknown to the whites.

Numerous schools exist for the purpose of instructing these primitive people in the useful arts. Most of these are under the control of religious bodies, and in time, no doubt, thanks to their exertions and example, improvements in the habits of the Araucanians will gradually take place.

The Chilean Government wisely prohibits the Indians from selling their lands, otherwise their passion for alcohol would have long since rendered them a landless people. Prior to the passing of this law, speculators, who were nearly always Germans, when the land boom in the south set in during the presidentship of General Montt, were in the habit of securing valuable concessions from Indians, whom they had previously rendered intoxicated. Several times during the past century minor outbreaks have occurred amongst the Araucanians which the Chilean Government has been able to suppress without serious bloodshed.

In 1861, President Perez tried to bring them into closer relationship with the Government, but the Indians, through their head chief or toqui, Guenticol, refused to negotiate. A Frenchman named de Touneus, who had lived amongst

* Smith's "Temperate Chile."

them for years, at this juncture was successful in persuading them that he would, if placed at their head, defeat the Chileans. Eventually he was elected toqui or King, under the title of Aurelie Antoine I. King Aurelie caused considerable trouble to the Chilean Government, until, after reigning for twelve months, he was captured by disguised Chilean policemen and sentenced to a term of imprisonment. King Aurelie eventually became a waiter in France where he lived until quite recently.

In the 'eighties there were insurrections among these people, which culminated in cattle raids. Since then they have become convinced of their incapacity to resist Chilean arms, and are living peaceably on their lands.

Generally speaking, the Araucanian of to-day is courteous in his manner, and honourable in his engagements. He is superstitious and boastful, especially when he talks of his ancestors, but treachery is a vice almost unknown to these Indians, who are also hospitable to a degree. They possess singular influence over animals, and an Araucanian's horse loves him and follows him like a pet. They are obedient to their own toquis, or head chiefs, and observe, to this day, many of their old customs. Their brides, after they have been bargained for with their fathers, are forcibly carried off screaming and struggling, a memory of the old warlike days. The Machi, prophetess or witch, still exercises considerable influence, both as a seer and doctor. Travel in their country is perfectly safe; as long as the visitor respects their customs and comports himself properly, he will be in no more danger than he would be in Surrey. In the extreme south of Chile, small nomad tribes of Patagonian Indians exist. Dwelling, as they do, in cold inhospitable, barren regions, they may be said to be the most miserable of the earth's inhabitants.

The Fuegian and Yagan Indians wander about the islands at the Straits of Magellan, some stark naked in all seasons; others roam clad in rags, skins and blankets, armed with bows and arrows, and subsisting mainly on shell-fish. In times of scarcity, they are cannibals, and

eat their old women in preference to their dogs, which are a necessity to them in the chase. Like their northern neighbours, they are fast disappearing, owing to the ravages of small-pox and the extraordinary death-rate among their children. Missionary efforts, however, are meeting with some success in ameliorating the lot of these primitive savages. With regard to the Indians in Chile generally, when we look back upon their courageous efforts to hold their land for themselves, it is depressing to think that *aguardiente* is swiftly doing what all the chivalry of Spain was unable to do—that, among the Araucanians, chicanery has succeeded where force could not succeed ; that modern “civilization,” in short, has decreed, by guile, the end of one of the most dauntless races of mankind.

CHAPTER VII

ACROSS THE ANDES IN THE OLD DAYS

The legendary Andes—Storm-bound in the Casucha—The half-breed luggage porters—Mule and horse as mountaineers—At Las Vacas—Fleas—The Inca's Bridge—Mountain Sickness—The Cumbre Pass—The way down—Salto del Soldado—A duel story—We have changed all that.

Chile has every reason to be grateful to the Andes. By isolating her, they have made her what she is—a free and independent nation set between the snow peaks and the sea. But, since a modern country is not self-sufficing, and must live by its foreign trade, that natural barrier had to be broken; and now you can travel by a comfortable, conventional railway, from Argentine, across the home of the condors, to Chile. Those of us in whom yet lingers a love of the rough ways of the world, wish that it were not always so. Deeply we regret, in our hearts, the lost romance of the road; and we pity the prospect of future generations, who will be born into a world with never an unscaled hill nor a pathless desert, that they can tread, and say: "Now I am heading for the unknown." Only a year or so ago, the passage of the Andes, though little dangerous, called, at least, for a steady nerve, and some powers of endurance. In Olivares's day it called for even more than that. "Father Anastasio Kirchner, of the Society of Jesus, a notable mathematician of those times . . . says that in the mountains of Cordillera travellers find themselves very frequently surrounded by fire and flaming vapours, that men seem on fire, and the animals belch fire through their mouths and nostrils." Olivares, in telling the story, thinks that the father may have been speaking hyperbolically—"a thing very dear to poets"—in order to magnify the fiery spirit of horses; but we prefer to think that his attempt to explain away the truth is due to professional jealousy, and that the

animals belching fire were the guardian spirits of the passes.

The passage of the Andes, in the olden days, had a savour in it. You might, as you climbed higher and higher, above the buttressing cliffs and foot-hills, among the great, bare, red shoulders of mighty volcanic mountains, cleaving the clouds, hear descending upon you, as you rested in a shelter hut, a storm that would keep you penned there for days, half-frozen and half-suffocated by the smoke, that the snow and down draughts would not allow to pass through the hole in the roof. In those days you were glad to sleep, at night, snuggling up to your dog, that you might filch from him any heat that was to be had. These dome-shaped huts, or casuchas, which a beneficent authority has erected at intervals along the road, in order to minimise the not inconsiderable number of deaths which have occurred on the pass, are more effective than luxurious; and happy is the traveller who has been able to make the winter crossing without acquainting himself with their unsavoury interiors. "They have a small door but no windows, and they accommodate twenty people at a pinch. They are built mostly of brick with a brick floor, the interior being absolutely bare. There is nothing to sit upon in them, not even a bench, and they are, in fact, nothing but gruesome black holes, filled with every conceivable form of filth, the stench emanating from them being overpowering."

The luggage porters of the Andes are Spanish-Indian half-breeds, who, in many cases, have devoted the greater part of their time to the work. The majority of them are extraordinarily strong and hardy, some of them capable of carrying, through deep snow, a load of from 100 lbs. to 120 lbs. Many of them meet a violent end. Some are storm-bound in the casuchas, for so long that, their provisions failing them, they are driven by hunger to face the storm before which they sink exhausted; some die of sheer fatigue, some of starvation, while waiting for the storm to pass; others are struck by a sudden blizzard

or are buried by an avalanche. One's sympathy goes out to these unfortunates; yet it must be admitted that, though there are honest men among them, the majority are such as, ethically speaking, leave the world no poorer for their absence from it. They are only too ready, when once they have succeeded in obtaining payment in advance, to throw down their loads, and refuse to budge until they have been paid again. They are even capable of repeating this manœuvre at later stages, until the unfortunate traveller is thoroughly fleeced. Experienced mountaineers arrange that no payment shall be made until services contracted for have been duly rendered. Moreover, the old hand at dealing with these gentry, does not forget to let them see that he possesses a revolver, and can use it.

Only a few years ago, as we have said, when the English engineers had already forced their line into the heart of the hills, the passage of the Andes had in it a spice of adventure. When you had gone as far as the train could take you, you climbed upon the back of a mule, and with a gallant company, similarly mounted, following the jingling bell of the leader, saving whose presence each individual animal will go whither *his* fancy takes him, you plunge into the unknown.

Unless you are accustomed to the vagaries of these beasts, your mule is a nerve-racking animal. Heedless of your efforts to coax him to the soft side of the path, he loves to wander, in deep meditation, among the crumbling stones that are balanced on the edge of the abyss; and to contemplate, far below him, the rocks upon which you are, as you firmly believe, about to terminate, in one horrible crash, your mortal existence. Little by little, however, you come to fear less the vagaries of this wandering dreamer, though you will not, even in optimistic moments, believe the Chilean, who will tell you that the mule never falls.

A similar legend is current among European tourists, to the effect that the mule is the most sure-footed creature on earth, and can never stumble nor trip. Let those who believe it cross the Andes on mule-back, and judge for

themselves. As a matter of fact, many men experienced in transandine travel prefer the horse, and look upon him as the more reliable beast, for the reason that, being much more intelligent and much more nerry than the mule, he approaches dangerous places with a reasonable degree of caution, and will sometimes even sniff the ground, as though he could thereby detect danger. Perhaps he can, in that way, draw conclusions as to the quality of the rock or earth beneath him. It is positively distressing to see a horse cross a bad spot. The mule, on the other hand, even in the most dangerous places, is absolutely without nerves. He ignores difficult situations; and lumbers across the *mauvais pas* with the utmost coolness and sang-froid. He has the defects, but also the advantages, of his qualities. Carramba! we were almost down that time. No more philosophizing along this dangerous path. Let us think of our journey.

Now and then the monotony of the climb is broken by the appearance before us of a cloud of dust, from which emerges, with deafening shouts, a party of *arrieros*, spurring their steeds towards our caravan, and thundering past into silence. At last, as evening is closing in, we see before us, in a mountain valley, the steely glitter of water, some corrals of dry stone, and a square of low, zinc-roofed buildings. 'Tis the Hotel of Las Vacas, where we shall pass the night. Then, at last, among piles of baggage, among saddles and sheepskins, among sulky, tired mules, and more sulky more tired men, we dismount, feed, and finally slumber, if we are allowed to do so by those wanderers of the night, who, fearless of insect powder, bid all flesh they fasten upon to "sleep no more." That is why, at day-break, we are not so much wakened out into the chill of the grey morning, and leave the fleas behind.

Beneath the starlight, we begin to climb, splashing through shallow fords, crunching over gravelled paths, always following the silent, ghost-like, grey form ahead. Once or twice our beasts may shy at a skeleton beside the sandy track. What accident, we wonder, gave the

condors so good a feast? The weird light brightens in the east; the sun, though not yet risen above the peaks, has lit all the heavens. The valley widens, and, by the time the sun is over the hills, we are halting again at the Puente del Inca, the Inca's Bridge, a natural work in stalactite, about 120 feet wide, and sixty feet high, formed by the mineral springs. Close by, between the cliff-side, in gloomy caverns, are the natural warm baths that are used by a considerable number of sufferers from skin diseases. As one draws near the summit, the solitude and majestic stillness of the great sweep of barren mountain and valley scenery, purple, red, and grey, are strangely impressive, or rather they may be, should you happen to be in a condition that permits of their enjoyment. Quite possibly you will by this time, be wishing that your mule had been less sure-footed; your head may be aching as though your skull were about to burst; you may be bleeding profusely at the nose; you may be gasping like a rabbit under an air pump; or you may be vomiting like a Polish emigrant in a mid-Atlantic storm. All these troubles are but different forms of one disease, *puna*, the mountain sickness. It is an evil thing, this *puna*. Happy they who are exempt. But, well or ill, look up. Do you see that track wriggling like a brown serpent up that mountain side. There, at the sky line, is Cumbre, the summit of the Uspallata Pass, and the boundary between two countries. We must be there by two o'clock, if possible, because, after that time, the winds, at this great altitude, may stiffen into a hurricane, that will blow our four-footed philosophers off their feet. Apart from the winds, there are dangers enough. We may find the way blocked by a troop of red cattle, passing over to Chile from the plains of Argentine; or a convoy of mules, laden with bulky packages, and far ahead of their driver, may descend upon us like an avalanche, and leave little enough space on either side of the path for you to choose by which death you will die. Probably, if *puna* still enables you to take an interest in any thing mundane, you will not be sorry to begin the

descent—which, by the way, is much steeper than the ascent—and to sit for the next few hours on the tail of your mule, until, after skirting the lonely Lakes of the Inca, and defiling through many a solitary valley, chilled in the shadow of great hills, we hear the sound of blasting, and come out upon the road, above the darkened vale, where, far below, the lights of Juncal will soon be twinkling. There we may forget our weariness, our troubles; and, cheered by a French welcome, and by a French dinner, may sleep a sleep, such as none but the traveller knows.

Breakfast finished, you are off again, up the hill-side to see the gorge of the Salto del Soldado, where the river Aconcagua has cut so narrow a channel through the ravine, that here a legendary warrior, entrusted with important despatches, in one of the legendary wars, was able, by a long jump, to save his life. There must be fish in the Aconcagua, swift though the river be; for one sees, swimming up against the current, divers, like a cormorant in shape, and of lovely plumage. One is grateful to these birds for enlivening the solitude, and reminding one that nature, even in the Andes, can provide something less aggressive than the prickly pear, beneath which we are standing, and lovelier than the condor, who, looking no bigger than a crow, we can see almost hidden in the overhead blue. Concerning Selto del Soldado there is extant a story.

A house hereabouts was, a few years ago, the scene of an interesting frontier incident. In the middle of the night, two carriages drew up before the door. The occupants descended in two parties, said they were famished, and asked for food. When questioned, they replied that they were going over to Argentina on important political business. The hostess, however, noticing that one party remained outside, and would have no dealings with the other, grew suspicious, and ordered her *mozo*, Enrico, to saddle the swiftest horse in the stable, and follow the strangers. The next morning, the occupants of the inn were awakened by loud knocking. Soldiers were at the

door, demanding to know whether any travellers had passed during the night. Before an answer could be given, the sound of galloping hoofs was heard on the road from Juncal. A moment later Enrico, swaying in his saddle, rode up, shouting "Un medico! Un medico! por l'amor de Dios un medico!" "A doctor! a doctor! for the love of God a doctor!" They helped him from the saddle. The horse dropped, as if dead. He had come from the Cumbre in two hours. Then Enrico told his story. He could not say much, since he had seen little; but gradually the truth came out. It was, as the hostess had suspected, a duel. The facts were approximately these.

General A., a retired officer of the Chilean army, a man of considerable age, had been offended by some aspersions cast by a Major B., upon the officers of the National Guard. Safely shut up in his estancia, the general brooded over his grievance, and set himself to practice revolver-shooting. "I will shoot him dead," he was heard to mutter; "I will kill him!" A duel was at length arranged; and, since the law forbids its taking place on Chilean soil, the principals agreed to cross the Cumbre, and fight on Argentine territory. How they got to the Cumbre, we have already heard. Behind some rocks, just over the frontier, the duel took place. The general reserved his fire, and refused to shoot. Major B. then raised his arm, and shot into the air. Then the General fired; and his opponent, shot through the head, fell, as if dead. A doctor arrived on the scene; but some hours after Enrico's return, the two carriages again stopped before the house, which, by this time, was alive with reporters eager for copy. The General entered in a state of great excitement, saying "I knew I'd kill him, kill him, kill him." He hurried from one reporter to another, telling them what they might and might not say. Everyone, thinking the house was a restaurant, clamoured for food and drink. Meanwhile, the doctors were giving Major B. only a few hours of life. The bullet had made the round of his skull, under the skin; and he was in a bad way. But not so bad as the medicos

thought ; for some few months later Major B., completely recovered from his wound, was present, in the flesh, at a review of cadets in the military school of Santiago. Whether or not poetic justice visited the general, this deponent knoweth not.*

Here, by this salto, we may lounge awhile, with the consciousness that we have broken the back of our journey ; for even in the old days of which I write, from here, or hereabouts, you could take the mountain train that, in a few hours, rattled you through the rich, ever-widening valley down into the heart of Chile, whose meadow greenness is a luxury to the eyes, after the arid, red rocks of the Andes. Such were the experiences of the Transandine traveller, but a few years ago. Now, as we have said, the journey is no more adventurous than that from London to Brighton. You may see, any day, a party of Chilean ladies doing it, all dressed in their best clothes, and showing matchless complexions, that, unhappily, will stand neither wind nor weather. That this is so, should be a matter of regret for those who would not willingly sacrifice romance to comfort.

* Fitzgerald, " Highest Andes," pp. 229—231.

CHAPTER VIII

TO VALPARAISO VIA THE PASS OF USPALLATA

The Uspallata Tunnel Constructed by British Capital—Chilean Railways from Buenos Aires to Valparaiso by Train—The Scenery—The Town of Mendoza—The Andes—The Heart of the Cordilleras—The Colossal Statue of Christ cast from Cannon—The Smiling Land of Chile—Flowers and Verdure—Orchards and Gardens—The Pacific in Sight—Arrival at Valparaiso—Charm of the Andes—The Penitents—The Iglesia—The Penitents of Snow—The Conquest of Aconcagua.

A little over three years ago, I was congratulated by my friends on having made the journey between Chile and London in thirty-three days, viâ the Magellan Straits. Within twelve months of my second passage it became possible—thanks to the completion of the tunnel through Uspallata on the Andes—to make the journey in nineteen days by sea, and thirty-six hours by rail, between London and Valparaiso. This tunnel—the most elevated yet pierced by any British Company—is a triumph of engineering skill. It was constructed under a guarantee, on behalf of the Chilean and Argentine Governments.

Few realize how considerable is the time saved by the opening of the Transandine route, for travellers bound for the western ports of Southern America, or for Sydney or New Zealand. Buenos Ayres can be reached in a fortnight from London; three days later you are at Valparaiso, whence a steamer arrives at Auckland in about another fourteen days. At present, about a fortnight is lost by the passage through the straits of Magellan. There should be an average saving of at least ten days, by the new line, with the additional advantage of a more or less constant winter service, though occasional delays will be inevitable when heavy falls of snow or rain bring down, not only the ordinary mountain avalanches, but, what is more dangerous, torrents of soft mud, which carry everything before them. Travellers along the line to-day, will notice, from time to

time, places where both the embankments and the railway have been renewed after winter storms.

The railways of Antofagasta and Uspallata are not, however, the only international railways of Chile. Late in 1911, the Chilean section of the railway from Arica to La Paz was completed, and the Bolivian section is also practically finished. This railway is 270 miles long and has been made for the Chilean Government by British contractors for the sum of £2,750,000 in virtue of a treaty of peace and amity between Chile and Bolivia.

The transandine railway at Antuco, will shortly be opened, and, in addition to these, there are three other railways across the Andes in the course of construction. One from Salta to Mejillones and Antofagasta, another from Tinguasta to Copiapo and Caldera, and a third from Temuco to join the Buenos Ayres Great Southern Railway, which will link up Santiago, the capital of Chile, with Bahia Blanca, the second port of the Argentine.

It is not, however, within the province of this chapter to deal with the immense development of the railways of Chile. It is the endeavour of the writer to describe the comforts and delights of a modern railway, trans-continental journey to Chile, in contrast to the dreadful adventures of the old time Conquistadores in their "march of Death and Despair."

To-day one enters the comfortable corridor train, that every second day leaves the Retiro station at Buenos Aires, for the Pacific. Slowly the train glides away, and it is not until the town is left far behind that speed is acquired, and the flat, fertile plains pass in rapid panoramic succession before the eye.

Rapid as the journey is, it reveals to a surprising degree, the enormous agricultural wealth of South America. For miles and miles the train speeds through fields of waving maize in all its splendour; then comes an apparently interminable vista of that wonderful cattle fodder, alfalfa, with its purple fragrant blossoms, succeeded ultimately by more miles of maize.

Then follow stretches of prairie land dotted with innumerable herds ; then more fields of maize and alfalfa. After about twenty hours travel, the character of the country begins to change appreciably. The uniform flatness has been substituted by great undulations, that roll like mighty waves. Far away great grey cloud-shapes are visible, which, in time, will resolve themselves into mountains.

Tall, feathery plumes of pampas grass wave in the wind, and soon the train plunges into a district of vineyards, which resemble somewhat the hop fields of Kent. Then the train slows up, and the picturesque town of Mendoza is reached.

The first part of the journey is now ended, and you change for the narrow gauge train that will cross the solitudes of the Andes, which are plainly visible from Mendoza, with their dark foregrounds backed by towering snow peaks, gleaming and glowing in the brilliant sunlight against an azure sky. A shrill whistle, and the train starts, first through vineyards, then through peach and apple orchards. Later comes the cactus and scrub vegetation, that marks the conquest of the mountain over the fruits of the plain. All along this way the Mendoza river, its brown waters capped with chocolate foam, comes tumbling down by the side of the railway, from its source in the eternal snows.

Here and there the train whisks past a cairn of stones, and a wooden cross, that marks the solitary resting place of some pioneer. Curve after curve is rounded. The famous natural bridge which the Incas crossed—the Puente del Inca—during their fruitless efforts to subdue the unconquerable Araucanians, is passed, and the train steams, at times by zig-zag routes, to the upper fastnesses of the mountains.

Chasms that are apparently bottomless ; rocky walls, devoid of vegetation, yet glowing with colour, appall, while they fascinate the eye. Torrents stream from masses of melting snow that gleam opalescent in the sunshine.

By now we are in the heart of the Cordilleras, 10,000 feet above the level of the sea !

We have been conveyed there, by the magic of the engineer, in comfort and ease, within a few hours, yet, only recently, to reach Las Cuevas, the Argentine terminus, was a long, painful, and dangerous journey.

When one stands there, and surveys the range of snowy peaks, which, until the Andes had been conquered by the engineer, could only be crossed by mules, one can realise the courage of those Spanish Conquistadores who braved such dangers in their search for Eldorado.

At Cumbre, the summit of the pass, stands a frontier post with Argentina on one side, and Chile on the other. By its side, plain to view in summer time, but buried in snow during the winter season, looms in solitary grandeur, a colossal statue of Christ with His arms stretched out in the act of blessing the Republics of Argentina and Chile. The question whether the statue should face east, towards the Argentine, or west, towards Chile, was so delicate a one that the discussion caused momentary anxiety. The powers wisely decided, however, that the Christ should turn his back upon neither country. The guardian figure faces north.

This statue was raised to commemorate the treaty of peace, between the Republics, and was cast from cannon captured during the Paraguayan war. Far above, in the blue immensity, a condor soars, and below in the west, lies the smiling land of Chile.

The path is downwards now ; we follow the course of the descending torrents of the river Aconcagua, and pass the metallic looking waters of Lake Inca. Gradually we notice breaks in the snow fields, and mountain plants commence to show their verdure. Then the snow ceases, and the mountain side is ablaze with the large yellow blossoms of a plant of the nasturtium variety, that grows in reckless profusion on these rocky slopes.

As one descends, flowers of many hues greet the eye, recalling the description of the blossoms we have already quoted of the old-time Jesuit, Ovalles. Then we pass "Salto del Soldado," a spot with which we have already made acquaintance.

Soon rich meadows come into view, covered with flowers of all hues, on which countless flocks are grazing. Groves of poplar, an exceedingly common feature of the Chilean landscape, shelter homsteads; then the houses, of Los Andes, or more properly Santa Rosa de los Andes, are seen, and we change trains for Valparaiso, which is reached after steaming through the most fruitful and delightful country imaginable. It is, indeed, a land flowing with "milk and honey." Everywhere there are apple and olive orchards, gardens ablaze with high hydrangeas, geraniums, roses, and gigantic sunflowers, which, at one time, the Indians venerated as emblems of the sun-god.

White-walled residences flash by, surrounded by the ubiquitous poplars, which at certain seasons are ablaze with scarlet blossoms owing to the presence of parasitic honey-suckles. Bamboos wave in the midst of the hedges that look exactly like those of an English countryside, and which in the proper season, are rich with roses red and white. Then the train slows down, and we catch glimpses, for the first time, of the deep blue waters of the Pacific, and find ourselves at our destination, in the far famed port of Valparaiso. But, before we visit Valparaiso, let us turn back again, for a while, to the Andes.

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Those who love the easy and comparatively civilized life of a Spanish-Latin country, when once they have plunged into the darkness of the tunnel below the Cumbre, and have rattled down again into the fertile plains of Chile, will probably see the Andes no more, unless it be from a distance, or on the return journey. But let him that loves mountain solitudes return, and linger over some of the sights that nature has to offer him there. Of their kind the world has not their equal. There is no exaltation of mind greater than that which comes to the traveller, as he watches the purples, the reds, and the golds poured in molten floods by the Chilean sunsets upon the tormented flanks of the mountains, and lets his gaze pass on and up to the dazzling snow upon the peaks, and the distant glories



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of Aconcagua, lifting her head twenty-three thousand feet above the sea. Let him examine, at his leisure, some of the Andean rocks that never have been, and never will be seen from a train—Los Penitentes, for example, those wicked ones, who, repenting too late of awful crimes, were petrified to stone, just as the great doors of the church—the Iglesia—where they would have sought pardon, were about to open to them. You can see them to this day; the procession of robed, kneeling figures, humbled before the towering nave of a great cathedral.

Mr. E. A. Fitzgerald, than whom nobody is more qualified to speak with authority, gives the following good description of the "Iglesia."

"To all who cross the Andes by the Uspallata route, the Penitentes are pointed out as one of the wonders to be seen. This great wall of rock, cut by time and water, presents the shapes of perpendicular pillars, and buttresses some two thousand feet high, and is in the imagination of the beholder the "Iglesia," or monastery. On the steep red slope of debris leading to its base stands a long line of black pinnacles of rock—the "Penitents" the monks, toiling in solemn procession up the steep slope to the portals above. I have heard many people who have crossed the Andes say: 'I saw the boasted marvels of the Penitentes, and I frankly confess I do not appreciate them.' Now, had I not had the advantage of seeing them on more than one occasion, and in different lights, I should probably have carried away the same impression. The effect is to a great extent produced by the light. In the morning or evening, when the shadows are long, the effect is particularly striking. I saw it once by moonlight when the procession was both real and lifelike, and I thoroughly entered into the feelings of my imaginative arriero, who, standing quite still, and beckoning to me to do the same, whispered, 'Stay a moment, señor, listen, and you will hear the monks chanting.'"

Nor are these the only penitents of the Andes. There are also the *nieves penitentes*, "penitents of snow," for

whom the natives account by legends, as weird and fantastic as are the rocks about them. The scientist, Sir Martin Conway, and others learned in these matters, will tell you that these kneeling friars are the work of that great sculptor, the sun. The softer snows are melted away ; but the crystalline portions, upon which the sun has little effect, remain standing, in the form of " Nieve Penitente," cones some four to five feet high, whose curved tops cause them to resemble closely the bent cowed heads of penitent friars standing or kneeling, side by side, in long rows.

Such Andean sights as the Nieve and the Iglesia can be seen with very little exertion or fatigue, and will well repay the trouble to any but the most superficial travellers. Severe mountain climbing among the Andes, however, is another matter. It can be undertaken only by those fully equipped, physically and otherwise, for the task. Those who believe that the ascent of such peaks as Aconcagua or Tupungato is anything but a terrible experience, should read the descriptions which Mr. E. A. Fitzgerald and his companions have left of their climbs. Experienced mountaineers though nearly all of them were, the story of their sufferings is almost appalling. In altitudes of 18,000 feet or more, in which their highest camp was pitched, they suffered alternately from piercing cold at night, and from scorching heat by day. At night sleep was almost impossible. Huddled together, for warmth's sake, in a tent only a few feet wide, unable to breathe by reason of the rarified atmosphere, they coughed, wheezed, panted, and roared in chorus. Neither could move without awakening any one of his companions, who might happen—fortunate man—to be in a state of unconsciousness. When climbing they suffered from giddiness, nausea, headache, collapse of the legs, frost-bite, contusions, and a thousand other ills. Zurbiggen, a Swiss guide, had both his feet frost-bitten, and was in imminent danger of losing them, had not his companions, despite his struggles, cries, and curses, caused by the maddening pain, as the blood began again to flow, insisted upon rubbing his

feet back to sensibility. Some of the men were, at times, in such a state of depression, caused by exhaustion and disappointments, and by the awful loneliness of these wind-swept wastes, that they would burst into tears, and cry like children over some trifling incident, such as a broken wine-bottle, that, normally would have aroused only a jest. Power of thought, of judgment, and of initiative, vanishes under such conditions ; all the climbers' ambition is lost in intense desire to descend to the plains again. On some occasions, when camped near the crest of the peaks, they heard, high above them the storm winds roaring with an awful clamour about the mountain head, and had to sit in terrible suspense, waiting until the hurricane should reach them, and perhaps send their frail tent, which could not be properly fixed among these rocks, flying on the wings of the wind. This is Mr. Fitzgerald's account of the conquest of Aconcagua, over 23,000 feet high, the highest peak in America.

“ I gave up the fight, and started to go down. I shall never forget the descent that followed. I was so weak that my legs seemed to fold up under me at every step, and I kept falling forward and cutting myself in the shattered stones that covered the sides of the mountain. I do not know how long I crawled in this miserable plight, steering for a big patch of snow that lay in a sheltered spot, but I should imagine that it was about an hour and a half. On reaching the snow I lay down, and finally rolled down a great portion of the mountain side. As I got lower my strength revived, and the nausea that I had been suffering from so acutely disappeared, leaving me with a splitting headache. Soon after five o'clock I reached our tent. My headache was now so bad it was with great difficulty I could see at all. Zurbriggen arrived at the tent about an hour and a half later. He had succeeded in gaining the summit, and had planted an ice axe there ; but he was so weak and tired that he could scarcely talk, and lay almost stupified by fatigue. Though naturally and justifiably elated by his triumph, at that moment he did not

seem to care what happened to him. At night, in fact, all hope and ambition seemed to depart, after four days spent at the height, and that night we got little sleep, everyone making extraordinary noises during his short snatches of unconsciousness—struggling, panting, and choking for breath, until at last obliged to wake up, and moisten his throat with a drop of water. Next morning we closed up our camp, and returned to the Inca. . . . Thus was Aconcagua conquered.”



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CHAPTER IX

IQUIQUE AND THE NITRATE INDUSTRY

The Paradox of the Desert—The Area and Extent of the Nitrate Deposits—Chile's Revenue of £6,000,000 from Nitrate—A Fairy Tale of Science—Mr. Humberstone's Theory as to the Formation of the Nitrate Deposits—How Nitric Acid can be made—Nature's Laboratory on the Andes—The Upheaval of the Desert—Was it an Inland Sea?—£30,000,000 Capital invested in Nitrates—The Landscape of the Pampa—Neither Rain nor Wind in the Desert—Absence of all life—Incredulity of the Native Workman as to the Existence of Vegetation—The Oficina of Agua Santa—Life at the Works—A Garden in the Desert—Conditions of Labour—The Chilean Workman or Roto—His Mixed Ancestry—Dirt and Politeness—Preponderance of English Capital—The Method of Manufacturing Nitrate—A Strange way of Blasting—The Boiling Tanks—Amount of Nitrate Owned by Different Nationalities—Beds of Salt of Borax—The Use of Nitrate of Soda—Iodine manufactured from the Waste Products—The Dangers of a Wheat Famine—Sir William Crookes on the Possibilities of Nitrate—Why the demand must Rise—Experiments of Sir John Laws and Sir William Gilbert—How Nitrate Increases the Harvest—Chile certain to retain her Monopoly of Nitrate—Professor Grandean and Professor Otto Witt' on the Difficulties of Artificial Manufacture of Nitrate—Senor V. Echeverria the Consul for Chile on the Industry—Iquique the most English Town in Chile—Curiosities of the Town—Everything Imported—The Pica Water Works—Champagne Cheaper than Water—Can the Desert be irrigated?—High Prices—Electric Trams and Light—The English Church and Club—The Race Course and Theatre—Cinematograph Theatres—Strange Customs in Chilean Theatres—Salaries and Cost of living in Iquique—The Hotels—British Beach Combers—Municipality and the Fire Brigade—The Prevalence of English—Why we are Losing Trade—Colonel North and Chile—George B. Chase, The Silver King—Colonel North's Romantic Career—Other Nitrate Centres.

One of the most important paradoxes that Chile presents, is that the natural resources of the northern deserts, where owing to the absence of rain nothing grows, are the means of trebling the growth of vegetation in other countries!

Owing to the enormous deposits of nitrates in this forbidding, though wealthy, desert, the commercial importance of Chile has been assured and her future position, as a most important factor in aiding the development of the human race, is guaranteed, by the unique store of mineral wealth which nature has bestowed on Chile, alone, amongst the nations of the earth! The Province of Tarapaca, the

capital of which is Iquique, contains an unexhaustible store of nitrates. The Tarapaca and Antofagasta nitrate deposits are upwards of a quarter of a million acres in extent, and are studded about the desert over an area of 300 miles !

It is estimated, by the National Mining Institution of Chile, that they contain 340,000,000 tons of available nitrate, or in other words a sufficient amount to supply the world for upwards of 136 years ! The Chilean Government receives a yearly revenue of more than £6,000,000 from the nitrate industry alone. The rapid and enormous growth of the consumption of nitrate can be realised when it is remembered that in 1830, only 8,348 tons were exported from Chile, against 1,646,890 tons in 1907, and 2,251,000 tons in 1910. Tacua, Tarapaca and Antofagasta were ceded to Chile, as compensation for war losses at the conclusion of peace in 1884 between Chile and the Republics of Bolivia and Peru. Prior to that date Tarapaca was included in Peru.

It is questionable if, in all history, any nation made a better bargain than when Chile acquired these stretches of arid and apparently worthless deserts.

The consensus of scientific opinion seems to show that Chile owes these valuable nitrate deposits chiefly to the configuration of the country. One naturally asks the question ; what is nitrate of soda, and why has nature deposited such large quantities so lavishly on the barren lands of Northern Chile, and has been so sparing of her bounty in all other parts of the world ? There are several theories in reply to this question, and all of them may be described as fairy tales of science ! Mr. James T. Humberstone, the director of the Agua Santa Nitrate Works, is of the opinion that the deposits are due to the fact that the Andes form the background of a practically rainless region, the great Pampa of Tamarugal, included in the districts of Tarapaca and Antofagasta, over which moist west winds from the Pacific, frequently blow.

Nitric acid is made by an electric spark passing through

moist air, causing the nitrogen and oxygen to unite. When the atmospheric conditions are favourable, the abundance of lightning in the Andes causes nitric acid to be manufactured on a scale absolutely gigantic, when compared with the puny efforts of man to produce the same chemical from the air by means of electricity.

The rain water, charged with the acid, coming into contact with the limestone of the mountains, becomes nitrate of lime. Enormous quantities of sulphate of soda exist in the Andes ; and the nitrate of lime, coming into contact with the sulphate of soda, becomes nitrate of soda, leaving sulphate of lime, or gypsum, as a solid mineral behind, which is familiar to us, when ground, as plaster of Paris.

The only outlet for the flood waters of the Andes, before the ground uprose to its present level ages ago, according to Mr. Humberstone, is the Pampa of Tamarugal, which includes the districts of Tarapaca and Antofagasta. Into these districts the torrents poured their waters, charged with a weak solution of nitrate of soda. Ages ago these floods were of annual occurrence, and the low-lying Pampa was flooded, for the greater part of the year, with water containing nitrate, borax, and other salts in solution, forming shallow lakes or lagoons.

These nitrous lakes or lagoons, as the land gradually rose to its present elevation of between three and four thousand feet, subsided, and evaporated, as they ceased to be fed by the mountain streams, through the changed configuration of the country. As rain scarcely ever falls, the salts they contained were deposited in rich profusion for the ultimate benefit of mankind.

Others, including Charles Darwin, are of the opinion that this desert was originally the bed of an island sea, and that the nitrate came from the decay of the vast quantities of seaweed ; the resulting chemicals acting upon shells and limestone. There is no question as to the fact of the general, though gradual, elevation of the Pacific coast of South America. Within historic times it has

been raised nearly four feet by the great though silent forces of nature. This would of course explain how in the process of ages the salt water lakes, the remnants of the ancient sea, would gradually dry up in a rainless region. Which theory is the correct one we leave our readers to judge for themselves. To-day these marvellous deposits have attracted upwards of £30,000,000 of capital, nearly £20,000,000 of which is British, paying approximately 10 per cent.

Official figures are not attainable, but probably at least 30,000 men are directly employed in digging and refining nitrate, and millions are indirectly dependent upon the numerous industries which the plentiful and cheap supply of nitrate renders possible and profitable. The nitrate works are reached from Iquique by train, which climbs diagonally up the coast hills, so that one is always ascending. Iquique, be it remembered, is built on the shore between the ocean and the Pampa of Tamarugal, which rises abruptly to an altitude of two thousand feet within two miles of high water mark!

The landscape of this pampa is drab and dreary in the extreme. There is no trace of animal or vegetable life for thousands of square miles. Darwin, when he crossed this desert, relates that the only trace of vegetable life that he observed was a lichen growing upon the bones of a mule. Of animal life he saw no signs, save a few flies which were feasting upon a mule that had recently died on the journey. The main features of the landscape are rocks of sand glaring under the relentless rays of an unclouded sun. There is no weather in Tarápaca, as there is neither rain nor wind, nothing but heat by day and cold by night.

From December to February, the summer months, the heat increases, and sometimes, between June and August, clouds appear on the high grounds. In the far distance the Andes are visible, like gaunt, stern sentinels of this arid land. As the train speeds on, at about twelve miles an hour, a white dust, as fine as flour, envelopes it, penetrating everything. Here and there may be seen the various

nitrate works, or *oficinas*, scattered about, at a distance of from one to ten miles of each other, and employing large numbers of workmen, who, with their wives and families, frequently pass their entire lives in this dreary desert.

Although accustomed to rich colours—for the rocky desert glows in places with purple, red, and gold beneath the glare of the sun—the natives gasp with astonishment when they are told of the trees and verdure of other lands. Mrs. Wright quotes the case of a young girl of sixteen, who, like hundreds of others in the district, had never left the nitrate fields. When taken, for the first time, from Tarapaca to Santiago, she wrote in heavily underscored words to a friend whom she had left behind, "Trees, trees, trees everywhere, and grass growing in a thick mat, and hundreds of flowers! It is a perfect paradise, and I am enchanted every minute!" And yet, as Mrs. Wright not inaptly adds, we grumble at a little rain! They can scarcely imagine any other employment than digging and refining nitrates, or any other scenery save that of the desert. One of the largest *oficinas*, Agua Santa, is half a day's journey by rail from Iquique, over the nitrate railway and the Company's private line. The *oficina* consists of the refining and drying works surrounded by a large village in the centre of the Company's Concession. The houses are all built of wood, and are laid out in streets, with a large square or plaza in the centre. A brass band plays every evening, and there are dances and games. There is a club house, a church, a well-appointed hospital, and a free school for the children of the workpeople. The administration house is a beautiful wooden building, splendidly furnished and lighted with electricity. Surprising to relate it is surrounded with a garden, filled with trees and flowers planted in soil brought from the oasis of Pica, from whence the water supply of Iquique and the desert nitrate works is obtained. The Agua Santa Company has been working these fields for upwards of thirty years. Nearly five square miles are being exploited, and more than 100 tons of nitrate are manufactured daily.

Workmen hardly ever leave the employment of the Company. Their wants are few, they are allowed to live rent free ; and when they are old, or disabled from working, the Company, by pensions or otherwise, provides for them. Each oficina is self-supporting, and contains a pulperia or store, where the necessities of life can be purchased, and the inhabitants are as contented as if the desert were a most desirable dwelling place.

✓ The Chilean workman, or *roto*, although as a rule ignorant, is by no means unintelligent. He is the real son of the soil, the true Chilean. His ancestry is a mixed one, as he descended from the hardy Basques and Biscayan pioneers who settled in Chile, from Spain, and the warlike and indomitable Indians. The *roto* possesses wonderful strength and physical endurance. In his house filth prevails, and his family is invariably large, although his children die like flies, on account of the absence of hygiene. He is a merry, kindly man, when sober, and the poorest people greet each other, when they meet, with *Buenos días señor*, "Good day, sir," or *Como le va señorita* "How do you do, Miss," with an air of courtesy that is foreign to English workmen.

Owing to the preponderance of English capital, and the supervision of English managers in the nitrate districts, the houses of the peons or *rotos* in Tarapaca are probably more sanitary, and there is less drunkenness than anywhere else in Chile. Wages are also much higher than in most other parts of Chile. At the time of the nitrate boom they were as high as from 6s. to 8s. per day, but provisions were and are extremely dear in the desert.

The manufacture of nitrate is a simple process. Most of the initial work had been accomplished in the great laboratory of Nature, before man appeared upon the scene.

A nitrate bed is worked in the following manner. The raw nitrate, or *caliche*, as it is called, is a regular stratum possessing all the appearance of a rock formation. In some places it lies on the surface of the ground, looking like snow soiled by London traffic ; in others, it runs in

veins from five to thirty feet below desert sand. It is extracted by a peculiar method of blasting. A hole is drilled through the surface soil and the caliche, until the gravel stratum that lies below the nitrate deposit is reached. A boy is lowered down this hole, and he excavates the gravel at its base, and fills it with blasting powder or dynamite.

This is exploded, and a great mass of caliche thrown up. The caliche is immediately attacked by labourers, who break it into lumps about the size of potatoes. Carts are next loaded with it, and taken to the works, where it is crushed and carried to the boiling tanks, there to be dissolved in hot water.

After boiling for some hours the solution is run into huge cooling vats, where it remains for several days, when the water is run off, and a white deposit of nitrate of soda is left. This is thrown on to the drying yards (or canchas), and exposed to the fierce rays of the sun, which rapidly evaporate the moisture. The nitrate is then ready for putting into bags for shipment. The available nitrate is distributed as follows amongst the various nationalities:

English companies have obtained concessions on grounds estimated to contain 250,000,000 Spanish quintals of 100 lbs. weight.		
Chilean Companies	„	„ 190,675,000
German	„	„ 100,975,000
Companies controlled by other nationalities	„	„ 80,350,000

The State owns the balance which it does not work, but lets out on concessions. In addition to the nitrate deposits in the Tarapaca Desert, there are enormous beds of common salt, and a veritable lake of borax, of which Chile is one of the principal producers. The total production of borax in Chile, up to the end of 1909, was 296,231,361 kilogrammes valued at £2,906,556. The chief use of nitrate of soda is that of a fertiliser, and it is the most important of all artificial manures. One fifth of the nitrate produced is used in various chemical industries, especially in the manufacture of explosives.

Over twenty great industries are dependent for their prosperity upon a cheap supply of nitrate from Chile. For a long time the waste water from the settling vats used to be poured away as valueless. Now iodine is manufactured from this once waste product, to such an extent that Iquique holds the monopoly of the world's supply of that chemical. It has been discovered that iodine is a constitutional part of the caliche, and, by treatment with bisulphide of soda, it is precipitated from the nitrate solution, and drawn off in the form of a dark powder. This is vapourised by a heating process, condensed in the form of the familiar violet crystals, and shipped. The Iquique iodine manufactures, it may be mentioned, have completely destroyed the Scotch manufactures of the same chemical, which used to be produced through the agency of kelp.

The vast possibilities of nitrate of soda, as a plant food, are only commencing to be generally recognised. In a lecture given to the British Association in 1898, Sir William Crookes drew attention to the dangers of a wheat famine, within the next half century, owing to the exhaustion of the nitrogen in the soil, and the constant increase of the wheat eating peoples of the world. For twenty years, prior to 1898, wheat was constantly falling in price, but during the past decade, to the alarm of statesmen, it has been slowly but steadily rising, so that there seems to be every indication of Sir William Crookes' prediction being fulfilled, unless by the judicious use of the inexhaustible nitrate resources of Chile, the nations succeed in preventing such a calamity. Sir William Crookes, in the lecture referred to, stated that by the year 1931, the number of bread eating people in the world would be 746,000,000, who would require a production of 3,260,000,000 bushels of wheat. This production, he maintained, would be impossible, seeing that wheat cannot be grown, save in temperate regions, unless artificial manures could be utilized to obtain a greater harvest from the same amount of cultivated land. Nitrate of soda he recommended, as being the cheapest form of plant food to supply the exhaustion of nitrogen in the soil.



NATIVE (MAPUCHE) GATHERING AT CENTENARY FÊTES



THE SOCIETY OF CAUPOLICAN (MAPUCHE GENTLEMEN)

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In this conclusion he was supported by the researches and experiments of the late Sir John Laws, Sir Henry Gilbert, and other eminent authorities in scientific agriculture. In the course of these experiments, wheat has been sown on a fixed spot for thirteen consecutive years, without manuring the soil, and gave an average harvest of 11.9 bushels per acre.

During the succeeding thirteen years, the wheat continued to be sown, and the ground manured with one and a quarter hundred weights of nitrate of soda. In this period the harvest showed an average of 36.4 bushels to the acre, or an increase of 24.5 bushels over the land not treated with nitrate. In the United States the demand for Chilean nitrate, thanks to the publicity given to its value as a manure by the Department of State Agriculture, is growing by leaps and bounds, and farmers all over the civilised world are using it in greater quantities, with the result that the exports of nitrate between 1907 and 1910 increased by nearly one million tons.

The fear that Chile will lose her world's monopoly of nitrate, through that commodity being manufactured artificially, is so remote that it may be banished. "Has the Chilean nitrate industry to fear in the near future a formidable competition from the artificial manufacture of nitrate?" asks Professor L. Grandeau, in his standard work "*La Production Electrique de L'Acide Nitrique avec Les Eléments de L'Air*," published in 1906. His reply is: "It is impossible to believe this, bearing in mind the requirements of agricultural lands for nitrogenized manures, and further the relatively feeble proportion of nitrate of lime, which is obtainable compared with the enormous reserves of Chile."

Professor Otto N. Witt, Director of the Technical Chemistry Institute of Berlin, stated in 1905 that: "The exportation of nitrate from Chile had reached such an extent that all the hydraulic power of Europe would not be sufficient to replace, with the present production of synthetical nitrate, the quantity which is sent to us by Chile."

English capitalists, investors, and engineers may indeed feel proud that they have been mainly instrumental in developing this vast industry, which, as Senor Vicente Echeverria, the able and energetic Consul for Chile in London, has pointed out, is destined to go on continually increasing. In 1835 Darwin wrote of Iquique as follows: "The whole is utterly desert. A light shower of rain falls only once in very many years; and the ravines consequently are filled with detritus and the mountain sides covered by piles of white sand even to a height of a thousand feet. During this season of the year a heavy bank of clouds, stretched over the ocean, seldom rises above the wall of rocks on the coast. The aspect of the place was most gloomy: the little port with its few vessels and small group of wretched houses seemed overwhelmed and out of all proportion to the rest of the scene. The inhabitants live like persons on board a ship; every necessary comes from a distance; water is brought in boats from Pisagua, about forty miles northward and is sold at the rate of nine reals (4/6) an eighteen gallon cask. I bought a wine bottle full for threepence. In like manner firewood and, of course, every article of food is imported. Very few animals can be maintained in such a place."

Iquique the capital of the Tarapaca district is the most English town in Chile, and contains about fifty thousand inhabitants. Iquique is built mainly of wood on the foreshore of the Pacific. Behind it the utterly barren and rocky land rises almost abruptly to the height of about two thousand feet forming a background of scenery that seems to be the embodiment of a nightmare of desolation. The streets are fairly well kept, and, as a rule, run at right angles to each other. The wooden houses are frequently painted in fantastic colours by the owners, and suggest a glorified Earl's Court with a rocky Demon's Gorge in the background. In the centre is the plaza, or square, where, of an evening, the Iquiqueans, fashionable and otherwise, parade, listen to the band, and enjoy the ornamental gardens, which are laid out on imported soil and gaily planted with trees

and flowers. The native inhabitants of Iquique have never seen any vegetation, except what grows on this spot, and in the gardens of the suburb of Cavanca. Iquique is unique in being the capital of a province, tha' is without water, fuel or food! Everything has to be imported. At one time water was brought in barrels, by ships from Peru; now the city is supplied with excellent water from Pica, an oasis in the desert one hundred miles away, from which all the scattered nitrate works also derive their water.

Prior to the construction of the Pica water works, it was said, in pardonable exaggeration, that it was "cheaper to drink champagne at Iquique than water."

The railway from Pica also supplies Iquique and the oficinas with fruit and vegetables, and in the not very distant future the Chilean Government will start a scheme for irrigating the pampa, with the result that the desert of Tarapaca will bloom like a rose, and all kinds of vegetation will become abundant.

Steamers with food and stores trade regularly between Iquique and other ports, and, in consequence of everything being imported from a distance, prices are high. The town itself is quite up to date. It is lighted with electricity, has an excellent tramcar service, and is connected by rail with the other principal towns and oficinas, in the desert province.

There is an English Church and an English club. A broad drive along the beach connects Iquique with Cavanca, a pleasure and bathing resort where dances are held nightly. Halfway between Iquique and Cavanca is the race course, and near it stands the club house, a fashionable resort at all times of the year. Several well-to-do residents own motor cars, and as soon as the business of the day is over, these are to be seen making the most of the two or three miles of good road that exist.

The Municipal theatre is an excellent one, and Spanish and Italian Companies touring South America are constantly performing there. At times popular English plays and musical comedies are performed by talented amateurs in the British Colony, for some deserving purpose or other,

and large funds are raised in the cause of charity. Cinematograph theatres have become firmly established in Iquique, and through their instrumentality, the inhabitants of this remote Pacific town are having the scenery and wonders of other parts of the world, which differ so intensely from their desert-bound surroundings, brought home to them.

A curious custom that prevails in the theatre is that the lights are not turned down when the curtain is up. The Chileans revel in light ; and as they come to the theatre to be seen, as well as to see, they, especially the fair section of the audience, would not tolerate the lights being turned down, for in that case what would be the advantage of costumes, jewels, and cosmetics, destined to dazzle and amaze ?

Salaries are high in Iquique, £50 a month being quite an ordinary sum for an Englishman to be paid, but in this connection the high prices must be borne in mind. Sunday work is also the rule rather than the exception, even amongst many English firms in the nitrate industry.

Accommodation at the hotels is dear ; though the menu is frequently limited to what is provided by the steamship service. Poverty, in the English sense, does not exist, but in Iquique, as well as in other Pacific towns, there is a sprinkling of ne'er-do-well Britishers, who loaf about the saloons, in the hope of being invited to partake of drinks, in which event they usually contrive to borrow a trifle, from their unsuspecting compatriot, on the strength of a remittance from the old country, which they are always expecting, but which somehow always fails to arrive.

Iquique, owing to most of its buildings being of wood, is liable to devastation by fire. This is guarded against by a splendidly equipped volunteer fire brigade, which is said to be the largest and smartest in South America. The municipal government of the town is progressive and excellent, and the Chemical Laboratory for the testing of chemical products and foods is one of the most important in all the South American Republics.

Owing to the great trade of Iquique with England and



the United States, English is nearly as much spoken as Spanish, and it is the most generally taught foreign language in the schools. So widely is English understood and read, that many manufacturers exhibit the posters that are so familiar on our hoardings, without troubling to have the letterpress printed in Spanish. This policy, however, is not to be commended, and it is owing to the neglect of our exporters in having their catalogues and advertisements printed in Spanish, that so much of the trade, that ought to be ours, is being captured by German competitors, who invariably become proficient in the language of the people they are doing business with. Through this neglect we are losing a vast amount of trade, not only in Iquique, but all over Chile, a fact that is exceptionally regrettable seeing that Iquique practically owes its importance as a town to the energy and foresight of an English Captain of Industry, the late Colonel North, the Nitrate King. In the Colonial days, Iquique was little more than a village, and was dependent for its importance on being the port of Enantajaya, where the famous silver mines are situated.

These mines apparently became exhausted towards the middle of the nineteenth century, but a new lease of fortune was bestowed upon them by George B. Chase, a Boston multi-millionaire, in 1885. Iquique's real importance dates from the time when the son of a Leeds artizan, named North, who had been sent to Iquique as a working engineer, first became interested in the possibilities of the new great industry, some years before Chase added to his fortune through the exploration of the Enantajaya silver mines.

From the first he recognised the invaluable character of the Tarapaca nitrate beds, and embarked in all kinds of enterprises every one of which was fabulously successful. He obtained concessions for trifling sums, foresaw the growth of Iquique's population, and provided the city with machinery for condensing water prior to the construction of the water works, established steamship agencies, and acquired an enormous fortune in less than five years.

To-day—he died in 1896—his financial enterprises are forgotten, except by those who move in the magic circle of finance, where the name of the “Nitrate King” is still revered as being one of the high priests of the modern science of money-making. The general public remember Colonel North, chiefly as a sportsman, and all sorts and conditions of men still speak with bated breath, when they recall the owner of the famous greyhound, “Fullerton,” although they are unaware of the important contribution he made to his country’s and the world’s wealth when he became the pioneer, exploiter, and populariser of the untold resources of the forbidding desert of Tarapaca! The bench at which Colonel North worked, when he first came, poor and unknown, to Chile, is still, we believe, to be seen in the little town of Carrizal.

Colonel North suffered in Chile all the annoyance from which a king, though he be only a nitrate-king, is never exempt. Wherever he might be, whether at Valparaiso, at Santiago, or at Vina del Mar, the doors and passages of his hotel were encumbered by petitioners. Women, in their black silk mantas, some with children, and some without, thronged the steps and rustled up and down the staircase. Each had ready a statement of a most urgent and deserving case. One lady, for instance, “had three charming children; she was beloved by a young man of an honourable family, who would marry her and acknowledge the dear ones as his own, if the generous and great-hearted English lord would let her have a dot of \$5,000. If she could not repay him on earth, he might rest assured he would receive ample compensation from the angels in heaven.”* We do not know whether the Colonel, already supplied with all he needed in this world, was able to resist this opportunity of acquiring a store of merit in the next; but opportunity of sorts never lacked. Many of the requests were pathetic, some humorous, such as the suggestion that he should finance a revolution in a neighbouring state, and be king of a larger land than the Nitrate fields; or a

* “A Visit to Chile.” W. H. Russell.

piteous request that he should purchase a second edition of Milton's "Paradise Lost," from an old savant, who, seized by the mining fever, had sunk all his fortune in some profitless lodes. It must not be supposed, however, that all Chileans are mere hangers-on. If they are certainly good beggars, it is because, when they have anything to give, they are equally good givers. For that reason no Chilean feels humbled in receiving.

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The other port towns of the Nitrate districts, Antofagasta the capital of the province of that name, Taltal, Tocopilla, Pisagua, and the smaller towns on the coast, may be all described as miniature editions of Iquique, although, of course, the amount of shipping that is always in the harbours of the nitrate capital is absent from the smaller ports.

The Nitrate district of Northern Chile may be said to be man's crowning triumph over stern, inhospitable Nature. The engineer has conquered the rugged mountain, and made life not only possible but enjoyable, in the midst of the waterless, pathless desert. The apparent impossibilities of transport have been solved by railways, that clamber up seemingly perpendicular cliffs and inaccessible mountains, and descend precipices with methodical regularity and safety! When one reflects upon the patience, courage, and faith of the pioneers, who have wrested untold wealth from this dread desert, and who are utilising its stores, one cannot withhold admiration; but it should be remembered that, in the opinion of many competent judges, the discovery and working of the nitrate fields has not been a wholly unmixed boon to Chile. Without endorsing the words of the Chilean commander, who, after the Peruvian war, declared that nitrate had ruined Peru and would certainly ruin Chile, we may be permitted to make some comments. First, then, the nitrate boom, by drawing northward a large number of men to the nitrate fields, seriously embarrassed the agriculture of Chile, upon which for many years the prosperity of the country must ultimately depend. As is always the case in time of booms,

many nitrate companies had been started without full consideration of questions so vital to success as the provision of cheap labour. But results had to be produced to the shareholders, and labour, therefore, must be obtained somehow. It was obtained; though only at prohibition prices. In some cases, wages as high as seven dollars a day were paid to the men. This was possible while the price of the commodity they were producing maintained its artificial value, a state of affairs which, of course, could not continue. When the inevitable crash came, many workers, dismissed by the companies, who were reducing their output, had to return south, to a condition of life far harder than that to which they had grown accustomed in the north. Few, moreover, during the days of plenty, had put by against a change of fortune. The majority had spent the money as it came, and now found themselves faced with penury.

Such minor disadvantages might, perhaps, be passed over, could we say truly that Chile has profited, in a sufficient degree, from the enormous revenue with which nitrates have supplied, and are supplying, the country. Those vast sums of money have not gone wholly, as they should, to the encouragement of agriculture and of industry, nor upon providing public works that would have been assets really profitable to the people of Chile. Too much has been lavished upon the upkeep of large staffs of officials, who, as one writer on Chile has put it, "are all tumbling over each other, and checking and counter-checking everything except what ought to be counter-checked." This is an evil which calls for reform; and there are those who think that such reform would be more easily effected, had Chile to rely less upon Nitrate and more upon her own efforts for the maintenance of the national revenue.

CHAPTER X

PARTRIDGE SHOOTING IN CHILE

Coquimbo the Sportsman's Mecca—The Shrine of the Penitents—The Pilgrims and their Offerings—Coquimbo's Pride—The Ichthyosaurus'—In Search of the Partridge—Attire of Chilean Sportsmen—Appearance of the Country—Where Birds are Found—Peculiarities of the Chilean Partridge—The Chilean Poacher, His Methods—Boys versus Dogs—Beaters on Ponies—Mid-day Lunch—Voracity of the Natives—Sunset on the Andes—Reflections on the Return Journey.

Coquimbo, which has been described as the English sportsman's Mecca, is the seaport of the province of that name, the capital of which is La Serena. Coquimbo is renowned for its copper, shrine, and sport, and may be described as being the rendezvous of the pious and of sportsmen.

It is situated about two hundred miles north of Valparaiso, or a day's journey by steamship; and, owing to the attractions it possesses, is very much patronised by His Majesty's ships, that happen to be cruising in South American waters.

Every Christmas, the town is filled with penitents, many of whom journey from far Peru and the Argentine, frequently on foot, to pray for pardon at the shrine of "The Blessed Virgin of the Rosary," at the village of Andacollo, the Lourdes of Chile, which is situated among the mountains, at the height of about four thousand feet.

Half a century ago, as many as fifty thousand pilgrims used to be present at the anniversary celebration, but of late years, piety has shown a tendency to decline, and last year there were not more than twenty-seven thousand assembled to offer up their prayers.

For generations past it has been the custom for these pilgrims, wild Gauchos from the plains, fierce looking Christianized Indians, devout commercial magnates, pious

grandmothers, intent on "making their souls," and fair, though frail penitents, from the great cities of South America, to offer up jewels and gold at the Virgin's shrine! Some time ago these jewels were valued, and were estimated to be worth nearly £200,000—a striking example of the vitality of Roman Catholicism in Spanish South America.

Coquimbo is also the largest copper exporting port of all the Southern Continent, and everyone who visits the town is taken to Herradura, or Horseshoe Bay, a short drive from the city, to view the fossilized remains of the 'big game,' that once roamed about the plains, in the shape of the petrified skeleton of an ichthyosaurus. This "dragon of the prime" is over twenty feet in length, and is believed by all patriotic Chileans to "whack creation." In prehistoric times these monsters were exceedingly numerous, and the whole district is rich in their remains, as well as in other fossils.

Strangely enough, although prehistoric Chile was so rich in monsters, no large wild animals have survived into modern times, and consequently the sportsman finds that his principal quarry is the familiar partridge, which exists in great numbers all over the south of Chile, and is, indeed, numerous all over the American Continent, although the possibilities of the survival of the Giant Sloth in the Patagonian forests was seriously mooted by a London daily paper a few years ago. As the Chilean winter is our summer, March 1st becomes the equivalent of September 1st, and on that day partridge shooting commences. The sportsman in Chile, who is usually an English business man or an officer, from a man of war, sets forth on his expedition at an early hour, generally before dawn. The custom is to drive from the town to some rendezvous, two or three miles distant, and partake of breakfast, after which the work of the day commences.

Overcoats are discarded, and the party stands revealed, in flannel trousers or knickerbockers, flannel shirts, no coat, and the slouched straw hat of the country. Everyone must wear strong shooting boots and stout leather

leggings, as the country abounds with Cactus shrubs, the thorns of which are ten inches long, and are strong enough to be used as knitting needles by the women in remote places.

The weather in the early morning is ideal, though as midday approaches, the sun becomes very powerful; but the intensity of the heat is relieved, every now and then, by puffs of cool wind from the far away Andes, which are visible in the distance, enrobed in a bluish haze, relieved here and there with streaks of glittering snow.

The appearance of the country, if we except the glimpses of the towering mountains, is not at all unlike Surrey, after the harvest. The ground is tawny and bare, but dotted about the landscape are groves of poplar trees over which scarlet-flowered honeysuckles climb, sheltering the houses and occasional orchards. Dead, withered-looking bushes are sparsely scattered about the plain; but along the valleys there is an indication of greenish vegetation, which marks the bed of the dried up water courses of the mountain streams.

Sometimes a little water lingers in these tiny river beds, and in their proximity birds are always found.

The Chilean partridge closely resembles the familiar English bird, save in one particular. When it is disturbed, it rises with a shrill, screaming whistle, which is so very startling to the novice that it frequently causes him to miss his aim.

Poachers, however, are a great obstacle to sportsmen in Chile, although, perhaps, it would be fairer to the Chileno, to describe him as being addicted to illegitimate methods of slaughter, rather than term him a poacher, as no license to shoot game is required in Chile.

The Chilean roto, as soon as he finds a watercourse that the birds frequent, fences off the pool, with thorny branches of Cactus, leaving only a few openings, into which the birds creep, and are promptly ensnared. If there is a market for the game, the shooting will be very rapidly destroyed, but if there is no demand in the locality, the

roto will only snare a few birds weekly, sufficient for his own requirements.

Strange to say, with the exception of a few English sportsmen who maintain dogs, shooting parties in Chile are seldom accompanied by the friend of men, the starting and retrieving of game being performed by boys. Like all the Chilean natives, these boys never walk, except when it is impossible to ride, so a shooting party in Chile presents the strange spectacle of being accompanied by two or three lads, mounted on ponies.

These boys are swathed in long leather leggings with huge spurs, and give vent to wild screams, shrieks and yells to cause the birds to rise as they approach the water courses. They enter into the spirit of the sport with great gusto, and no matter how broken or rocky the ground, their sure-footed ponies can gallop wherever a man can walk. These Chileno boys retrieve the game in a marvellous manner. As soon as a bird falls, they clap spurs to their ponies, and with a whoop and yell gallop after it, retrieve the partridge, mount, and wheel into heel again. Indeed, the greater part of the sport of partridge shooting in Southern Chile, consists in watching the evolutions of one's attendants.

In the meantime the carriage has been sent on ahead to some well-known spot, which is reached, after a long morning's tramp; and there, under the shade of a rock or tree, lunch is ready laid.

It does not take long to discuss the contents of the hamper, and do justice to the wine; and no matter how liberal its contents might have been, not a crumb will remain, after the native boys have been satisfied. It is, indeed, questionable whether a stronger or more voracious individual than a young Chilean peasant, exists on the face of the world. The afternoon is a repetition of the morning, until the cool freshness of the wind from the Andes, and the lengthening shadows warn one of the approach of darkness.

Then a wonderful panorama of scarlet, gold, and azure,

followed by a lurid blaze, proclaims sunset. The dark, jagged outlines of the Andes are silhouetted against the flame-lit sky ; and then darkness falls.

In a few minutes, the round orb of the moon rises, and the country is revealed in another aspect under her rays ; then, as the sportsman mounts into his carriage, which will convey him to Coquimbo, he will experience that agreeable feeling of lassitude which comes to all men after a successful day's sport, and realises that life, in the beautiful country of Chile, is indeed well worth living.

CHAPTER XI

THE MINES OF CHILE

GOLD, SILVER, COPPER, COAL AND IRON

The Output of Gold and Silver—Primitive Mining Methods—Chilean Tribute to the Incas—Valdivia on Chile—The System of Encomienda—Cruel Treatment of the Indians—The Early Gold Mines—The Romance of the Madre de Dios Mine—Floors strewn with Gold-dust—Sir Francis Drake captures Treasure Ships—The Araucanians Drive the Spaniards out of Valdivia—The Mines abandoned and rediscovered in 1897—The Madre de Dios re-opened in 1900—Gold Washing in Tierra del Fuego—Capital Wanted to develop Chilean Gold Fields—Chilean Silver Mines—The Huan-tajaya Mine—George B. Chase—The Silver Mines of the Atacama Desert—Antofagasta—The Silver Mines of the South—The Unexplored Southern Provinces—Copper Mines—Senor Echeverrias' Views—£135,323,868 the value of the Chilean output of Copper—Copper mines as a field for investors—Chilean Coal—Imports of Welsh Coal—Output of Chilean Coal Mines—The Cousino Mines at Lota—A Modern Chilean Colliery—Annual Profits £3,000,000—Glass and Tile Works—A Model Colliery Village—The Park at Lota—The Arauco and other Collieries—Iron Ore—French Firm of Steel Smelters—Petroleum Waiting to be Discovered—Mining Laws—How to obtain a Claim.

Although little is heard to-day of the gold and silver mines of Chile, it is well known that they furnished the main source of the wealth which the Crown of Spain received from its South American possessions. In this connection it should be remembered that several Peruvian mines now belong to Chile, since the cession of the Tarapaca district at the conclusion of the war. The total Chilean output of gold for the period of 365 years ending in 1909, was 231,292,347 grammes, valued at £45,806,097. The production of silver down to the end of 1909, in a total period of 217 years, has been 9,044,419,207 grammes, worth £63,924,186. These figures give little idea of the productiveness of the Chilean sources of precious metal, as the gold and silver mines have not been exploited, beyond what, in mining phraseology, is termed the outcrops. In the majority of cases, the work of exploiting has been confined, almost entirely, to the auriferous boulders found

on the mountains, and to alluvial gold, the early Spanish miners having apparently imagined that gold grew spontaneously in rocks and streams, instead of being a mere indication of hidden wealth. Prior to the Spanish conquest, the Chilean gold mines were regularly worked, and tribute paid to the Incas. Almagro passed, on his homeward march, gold mines worked by natives in the Copiapo, Coquimbo, and Huasco valleys. Valdivia gravely wrote to the Emperor Charles V. that "the whole country was a mine of gold." He seriously set to work to exploit Chile for gold in 1544, when he instituted the system of *encomienda*. This system made the Indians serfs, without any of the privileges and rights enjoyed by Feudal serfs, Valdivia's followers being rewarded for their services by grants of land and of Indian captives, who were compelled to work without payment either in the fields or in the mines.

In the north they usually worked for eight months out of the twelve, and in the south—where the climate was cold and wet—for six months. The remaining months they were allowed to cultivate the fields for their own food, as the Spaniards made their captives, when engaged in mining operations, keep themselves or perish.

The first gold mines worked under these conditions were those of the Marga-Marga, between Valparaiso and Santiago. Then mines were opened at Quilacoya, fifteen miles from the town of Concepcion; and five years later a number of mines including the famous Madre de Dios, were discovered.

The story of the Madre de Dios mine may be said to epitomise the romance and crime of the gold fields of the world. With the system of placer mining in vogue, a thousand ounces of gold dust per day were said to have been extracted from this, and the neighbouring mines in Valdivia's lifetime. Gold became so common in Chile that the Conquistadores found it cheaper to use than iron, for bits, buckles and stirrups! On the occasion of a wedding, or birthday feast, it was customary to sprinkle the floors of the banquetting chambers with gold dust!

The fame of the Madre de Dios spread all over the world. Pirates of all nationalities made raids on the treasure ships that sailed from Valparaiso; Sir Francis Drake captured several, and strong forts had to be built at Corral, to protect the Valdivia river and prevent the bold and daring freebooters, from sailing up and looting the mine itself. Then in 1598 the Araucanian war broke out, and the hostile savages drove the Spaniards from their territory, which preserved its independence practically until 1880, when the gold washings were abandoned until 1897.

The stories of the wealth of the Madre de Dios, were either forgotten or regarded as fables by level-headed business men. Still, rumours of buried treasure and forgotten gold mines survived, and in 1897 an English mining expert, Mr. Robert N. Williams, was sent to investigate the truth of these stories, and explore the site of the alleged gold field. The result was that a company was formed in London, and a modern mining plant erected in 1900, to extract gold from the same mine, that upwards of three centuries ago attracted the cupidity of Drake and Hawkins.

Tierra del Fuego is also said to be extremely rich in gold. Modern machinery has recently been erected opposite Punta Arenas—Sandy Point—the world's most southernly city, and, in time to come, the gold production of the south of the American continent may rival the fabulous wealth of the Klondyke in the far north. The mines of northern Chile have been unworked for upwards of a century.

Casual observers will deduce from the long list of abandoned and unworked gold mines in Chile, that the deposits of precious metal have been worked out. In the opinion of many, however, all that is necessary, to make the Chilean mines once more world-famous is capital and modern methods. When it is remembered that millions upon millions of pounds, have been subscribed for the exploitation of mines in South Africa, Australia, the United

States and Canada, one cannot help wondering what an Eldorado Chile would in all probability have been to-day, had only a small percentage of the capital employed in other lands, been invested in her mines. The value of the gold production of Chile in 1909 amounted to £88,168. In the summer of 1912 gold was found in the Constitucion district in considerable quantities.

So great an authority as Mr. Adolfo Ortuzal, Consul-General of Chile in the United States, states that gold abounds in the country, that there is not a mountain nor a hill in which the metal is not to be found in greater or less quantity. It exists in gold-bearing veins, enclosed in veins of copper or natural silver; and is also found in alluvial soils, and in the beds of rivers, in the form of grains and in nuggets, especially in the southern part of Chile, where even some of the streams are bedded with gold-bearing sand. Writing in 1907, the above quoted authority says: "To sum up; the great gold washings cover the country from north to south; there are 906 of such mines known, of which 350 are being worked, and that only in a superficial manner. How many more are there not yet known? What an immense field is open to the intelligent and skilful employment of capital! The mind is lost in contemplating its enormity!"

Silver has been, for centuries, one of the most important products of Chile, and one of the chief sources of her wealth. It was so abundant, according to the Spanish chronicles, that domestic utensils of all kinds, as well as pots, bowls, and vases were made of it, rather than of iron or earthenware, and it was in common use among the people for spears, stirrups, bits, horse-shoes, and buttons. A Chilean would say: "He has no silver," or "He is worth so much silver." It was the metal in terms of which Chilean wealth was reckoned. Even now, farmers and field-labourers use solid silver spurs and ornaments, and we have seen, in a previous chapter, how skilful the Araucanians were in working in that metal. In recent times the persistent fall in the value of silver naturally caused a diminution in pro-

duction ; but Chile continued to hold her own among the producers of the world—she now holds fourth place—nor is there any doubt that, in years to come, she will largely increase her output.

The Chilean silver mines were not extensively worked until after the middle of the Eighteenth Century, and reached the height of their productiveness between 1800 and 1850. Perhaps the most famous Chilean silver mine was the Huantajaya, which was discovered at the time of the Conquest, and said by Humboldt to have yielded £36,000,000 worth of silver, up to the commencement of the 19th Century. Soon after 1850 it was believed that the mine was exhausted, and the working ceased. In 1873 George B. Chase erected modern machinery, and re-started the old mine, with the result that Huantajaya again became one of the world's principal sources of silver. An enormous fortune has been made by the companies associated with George B. Chase's silver ventures in Tarapaca, and the probability is that the silver deposits, in the Atacama desert, are as inexhaustible as the nitrate fields. Antofagasta is the port for the silver mines of the north, known collectively as the Caracoles—the Spanish for snail—on account of the enormous quantities of fossil snails, which are found in the Jurassic rocks of the district. In the south, many rich mines which were formerly worked, are waiting to be re-discovered. The Indians are well aware of their location, but, with the taciturnity of their race, refuse to give any information to white men. In all probability less is known of this part of Chile to-day than in Valdivia's time, and it should handsomely repay systematic exploration. In 1908 the production of fine silver was valued at £112,500, and in 1909, £77,925.

Copper, one of the most important of all minerals, from a commercial point of view, is abundant in almost all parts of Chile, especially in the zone between 18° south, and 36½° south from the mountains of Chillen to the province of Tacna, and in a westerly direction from the summit of the Andes to the summit of the coast range, that is to

say over almost the entire breadth of the country. This statement is almost equally true of gold and silver. Indeed, the number of gold, silver, and copper mines known to exist in Chile amounts to nearly ten thousand, of which, however, not more than about eleven hundred are now in operation.

So far back as the seventeenth century, copper was produced in Chile to the extent of 4,550 tons, a consumption which rose, in the eighteenth century, to some 62,000 tons, a large figure, when we bear in mind the restrictions, as regards export, imposed by Spain upon her colonies, and the comparatively limited demand for the metal at that period, when its use was confined to domestic articles, before the invention of copper wire, submarine cables, and other copper-employing devices. The interest shown by the investing public generally in copper shares during the last few years, bears out the commonly held opinion, that the consumption of this metal is unlikely to decline in the future.

Chilean copper-mining—the remark applies to mining generally in the country—has been hindered, in past years, by the number of visionary enterprises, that, promoted with a flourish of trumpets, and the circulation of ridiculous rumours, have drawn to the country people unprovided with the necessary knowledge, training, capital, or other qualifications necessary to fit them for the work. Such proceedings have brought disaster, not merely upon the concern immediately involved, but upon undertakings which were thoroughly sound, and deserved to bring success to their exploiters. Chilean mines are not legendary; they exist. They offer, potentially, immense profit to those who will work them; but they must be worked upon business lines, and nothing in their management must be left to the mere chance that lures the adventurer lusting after sudden wealth.

Copper has been produced in Chile since the seventeenth century, at first on an insignificant scale, but increasing until it reached its zenith in 1876, from which year down to

1900 Chile held the first place among the copper-producing countries in the whole world. Since then its production has been surpassed by that of several other countries, at whose head figure the United States and Japan. Chile to-day holds but the eighth position in respect of copper production.

To what is this situation due? asks Señor Echeverría, the Chilean Consul in London. "There is eloquent proof of the reason of the falling off in Chilean copper production. The total amount of copper produced in the world is derived from minerals of a lower grade than 4 per cent., whilst in Chile that class of mineral is not dealt with. Mineral below a grade of 8 per cent. is unmarketable, in the Chilean smelting establishments, except it consists of a fluxing ore, and even then it is the flux which is valuable, not the copper.

"This state of affairs is explainable by, and due to, bad means of communication, to the unsuitable methods by which the mining exploitation is carried out, and to the imperfect systems which have hitherto obtained in the smelting works."

Whilst on this subject I may be permitted to quote the opinion expressed in the *Mining Journal* of London, which appeared in an article published on April 22nd, 1911, by Mr. A. Fleck. He writes as follows:—

"Up to now mining operations have been mostly conducted in Chile by joint stock companies constituted on the contributory system. Generally, however, only one, or at the most two, calls are paid. If the success of the undertaking appears to be in any way doubtful, or if the results are not at once fully up to the original expectations of the promoters, no further payments are made. . . ."

"These drawbacks are aggravated by the lack of roads and of branch railways by which the output of the mines might be transported to the main lines. At present this transport is generally carried out by mules and bullock carts, and in many cases it is too expensive and tedious to make profitable mining possible. . . ."

"Unfortunately there is no gainsaying the fact that in



ROBINSON CRUSOE'S CAVE, JUAN FERNANDEZ ISLAND

Chile hitherto only those copper districts where the average contents of the ore mined exceed 10 per cent. have given really profitable results. The ores are reduced in the local smelters to crude copper, the so-called Chile bars which contain 98 per cent. metallic copper.'

"It should be mentioned that the special merit and superior demand that Chilean copper has in the general market for the metal, is that it contains also gold, silver and other valuable ores, which have only but recently received a separate treatment as secondary mineral by-products.

"The foregoing is, I think, sufficiently clear to render further comment unnecessary. I will, therefore, conclude this portion by giving as an illustration the figures demonstrating the total output of copper from the year 1601 to the end of 1909—that is to say, a period of 299 years. This production has been 2,212,904,359 kilogrammes of fine copper, worth £135,323,868, and it must be added that two years ago—that is, since 1908—the copper output has attained to more than 40,000,000 kilogrammes annually, or, in other words, has been doubled in comparison with the output of the years immediately preceding, which may be said to be almost wholly due to the mineral of Collahuasi and of Teniente, which are English and North American companies respectively. They have put up the necessary capital for the construction of its railway branches and the organization of its works in the form demanded by an enterprise of the twentieth century, and not in the way their Spanish predecessors used to proceed, which latter has been the method observed until just recently, in the working of the greater part of the mines of Chile. It is, therefore, no exaggeration to say that copper mining in Chile offers a veritable virgin soil for the investment of foreign capital."

The existence of coal was well known to the early Spanish adventurers in Chile. Mendoza in 1557 used lignite coal, instead of wood, for fuel. In 1815 Wheelwright attempted to use coal, from the neighbourhood of Lota, for steamboats; but without success. It is not until since 1840 that coal

has been successfully exploited in Chile ; and even to-day, although the average production is upwards of a million tons, nearly a million and a half tons are imported, mainly from South Wales, the U.S.A., and Australia. The battle-ships are important consumers of Welsh coal ; and great quantities are exported to Iquique and the Nitrate ports, where good coal is sold at about the same price per ton we usually pay in London.

During the fifty years ending in 1909, the total output of the Chilean coal mines amounted to 26,626,674 tons, valued at £22,402,910.

The great Cousino mines at Lota, called after Don Matias Cousino, are ranked with the best equipped and most modern collieries in the world. The coal seams in these mines dip to the West, so that a large part of the workings is beneath the bed of the Pacific Ocean. The galleries are all lighted by electricity. Electric tramcars convey the coal and the miners along the workings, and an incline railway, instead of the customary shaft, conducts the workmen from the surface to the bed of the mine, a descent of 1,000 feet. The output of this mine varies from 800 to 1,000 tons per day, and upwards of 6,000 men are employed by the company, the shares of which are held entirely by members of the Cousino family, all of whom are fabulously wealthy. The management of this vast colliery is entirely conducted by Englishmen and Germans, and the average annual profits, from the various enterprises of the Cousino family, are said to amount to not less than £300,000.

A great trade is done in the smelting of copper ore, and there are enormous glass works which practically supply Chile with bottles, and brick and tile works.

The Cousino family and the Arauco Company, Ltd., have established a reputation, similar to that of the Cadbury Brothers in England, for the treatment of their employees. The men have free cottages, a hospital, medical attendance, a school for their children, and a church, provided by the Company.

The park at Lota is one of the sights of Chile, and the palace erected by Don Luis Cousino, built on the model of a French chateau, is one of the most beautiful and sumptuously furnished mansions in the world.

The Arauco Coal Mining Company owns pits at Peumo, Colico, and Curanilahue, and ranks next in importance to the Cousino mines. It produces annually 120,000 tons of excellent coal, and has an important railway and port concession from the Chilean Government. There are many other important coal mines, including the great Schwager mine near Concepcion, the Loreto mines at Puente Arenas, and those at Skyring. A great deal of German capital is invested in these mines, which are said to be highly profitable undertakings.

Vast quantities of iron ore exist in Southern Chile. Very little attention has as yet been directed to this valuable mineral. In 1909 an ex-partner of the great French firm of Creuzot erected steel works at Corval, and in 1910 about 70 tons of the finest steel was daily produced. Within twelve months the output will be increased to 300 tons daily, so that it is extremely probable that within a decade, we may find Chile building her own Dreadnoughts, entirely of materials contained, and manufactured, in the Republic.

Gold, silver, copper, coal, and nitrate by no means exhaust the list of valuable minerals which go to make up the potential wealth of Chile. Manganese, for example, is a metal large deposits of which are already being worked for exportation to Europe; and several important towns are interested in its production. Many, and always increasing in number, are the uses to which oxide of manganese can be put. It is employed in the manufacture of chlorine and bromine to colour glass, crystals, and soaps; also in making varnish, in dyeing, in printing cloth, in preparing permanganate of potash, etc., etc. The metal has been found in great abundance in the province of Coquimbo, and in many other parts of Chile.

Another very valuable commodity, that Chile could supply, in quantities sufficient to meet the requirements of

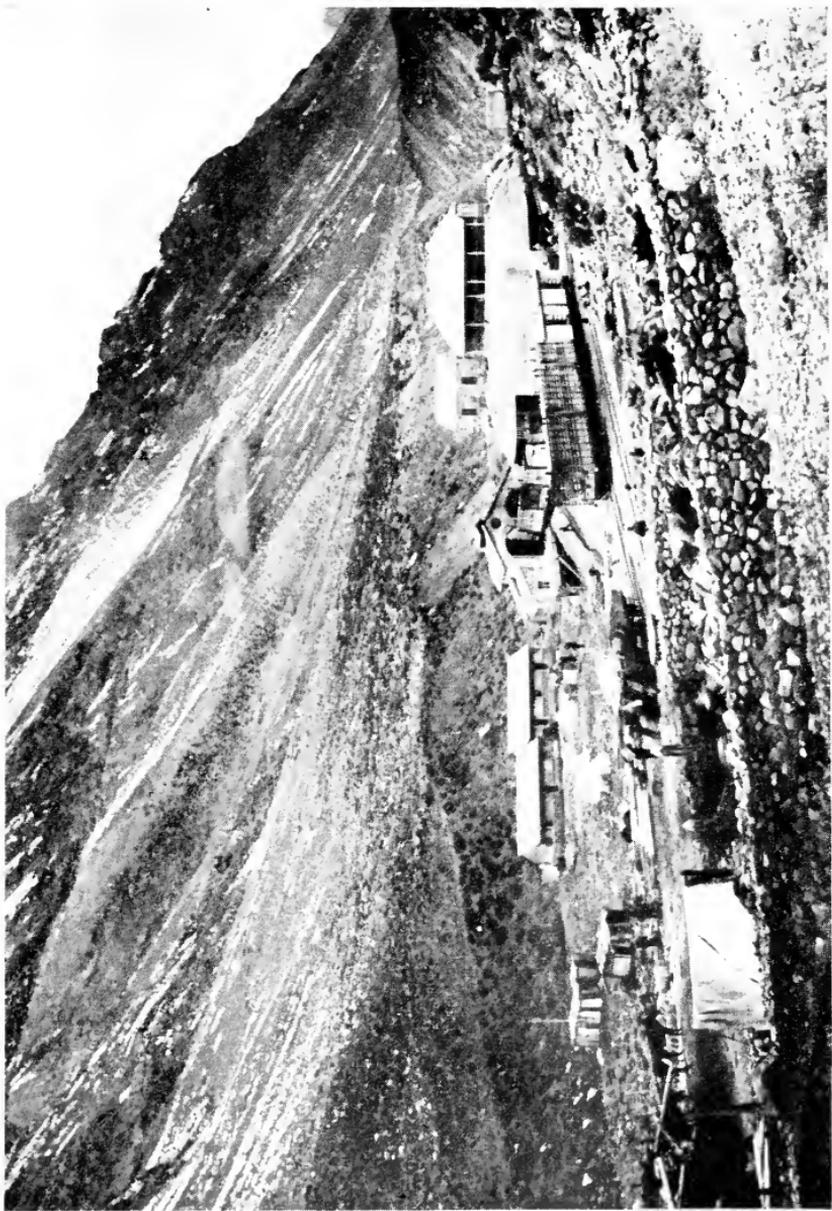
the whole world, is borax, in which export trade has become active during the last few years. Borax is a salt composed of boracic acid and a base. Separation, by chemical process, from its base, sets free the boracic acid, which, as everyone knows, is much used for disinfecting purposes—*e.g.*, boracic lint—and for preserving organic matter of many kinds, including some foods. The acid also has many chemical uses; and, in general manufacture, is largely employed in the making of white and coloured enamels, such as those used in street names and numbers.

Borax, essentially a volcanic production, is found in the great plateaux of Chile, which lie between the fifteenth and twenty-ninth parallels of latitude, at an altitude of from 3,500 to 6,000 feet above sea level; the formation being probably due to the gradual evaporation of lakes, which, when dried up, leave on the surface of the ground deposits varying in thickness from a few inches to five feet or more. The exploitation of Chile's unlimited supplies of this salt is certain to take a high place among the country's industries.*

Among other minerals and substances, which Chile does, and can increasingly, supply to the world, are common salt—of which the deposits, like those of borax, are inexhaustible—iodine, a by-product of the nitrates; guano, a valuable nitrogenous fertiliser of organic origin; cobalt, mercury, lead, etc., etc. Let British capitalists remember that here, for generations to come, there is opportunity for him who will seize it.

The only important mineral substance that up to now has not been discovered in Chile is petroleum, although it is probable that it exists in the many unexplored portions of that land of wealth. Any person can prospect for mines, and dispose of them when found, in accordance with the laws of the State. Administrators, governors, and judges, are not allowed to own or acquire mines, in the territories under their jurisdiction.

* "Chile of To-day," O. Adolfo Ortuzar.



JUNCAL STATION: THE RAILWAY LINE TO PORTILLO CAN BE TRACED
HIGH UP ON THE MOUNTAIN SIDE ABOVE.

A mining claim for the precious metals may range from three to fifteen acres, but a coal or nitrate claim can range up to one hundred acres. The claimant has to register his claim, which is published in a newspaper in the department, where the mine is situated; and within ninety days after registering the claim, a pit fifteen feet deep must be dug. This is all that is necessary to become a mine owner in Chile, if we except the annual payment of a fee of three dollars (gold) to the state as royalty or rent.

In 1909 the total value of the mineral production in Chile was £19,583,912.

	OUTPUT.	VALUE.
Nitrate	.. 2,101,512 tons	£13,135,253
Copper	.. 42,726 "	1,985,814
Coal 898,971 "	876,497
Iodine	.. 474 "	417,889
Borate	.. 32,218 "	342,790
Gold 40,695 ounces	88,168
Silver	.. 1,420,735 "	77,932
Sulphur	.. 4,507 tons	40,569
Guano	.. 10,692 "	31,879

In the year 1910 the export duties on nitrate levied by the Government amounted to £6,029,533, so that it is obvious that nitrate is the chief source of Chile's mineral wealth.

CHAPTER XII

AGRICULTURE IN CHILE

The Varied Products of Chile—Feudal System of Land Cultivation—Wealth of the Landowners—Their Power—The Roto or Peon—His Economic Status—The Indian Slaves and the Jesuits—Absence of Prejudice against a Mixed Race—A Nation of Mixed Ancestry—Some Silly English Prejudices against South Americans—Improvement of the Conditions of the Indians—Poor Spaniards Sink to their Level—Jesuits Expelled—O'Higgins Mitigates the Conditions of the Indians—Slavery Abolished—The Progress of the Peon—His Simple Life and Hut—The Furniture—Pigs and Poultry—Beggars on Horseback—Low Wages—Family Affection—His Superstitions—Passing of the Old System—Chilean Wheat—Exports of Cereals—Barley—Breweries—Beans—Potatoes—Chilean Wines—Their Cheapness—Fruit—Opening for Canning and Jam Manufactures—Horticulture—Agriculture—Cattle Breeding—Chilean Sheep—Sheep Farming in Patagonia—The Land Boom—Value of Exports of Wool and Mutton—How Land can be Obtained—German Immigrants—Valdivia—Ignorance of its Resources—The Plank Currency—Forest Land—Paper Making—German Progress—Will they become Assimilated with the Chileans—The Lesson of the Palatine Settlements in Ireland.

The backbone of the industries of Chile, is agriculture. The greatest extent of territory, the largest amount of capital, and the most powerful aims of the Government, are centred in the development of its food resources.

Chile produces every variety of vegetation that grows, from the tropics to the poles. In the north, the palm, vine, olive, and orange grow luxuriantly; in the middle, or temperate zone, all the familiar vegetation of England flourishes exceedingly, and south of Valdivia, in the still slightly explored country of the Araucanians, there are thousands of miles of virgin forests, composed of valuable trees suitable for timber for building purposes, for the manufacture of railway sleepers, and wood pulp for paper making.

Farming in Chile is conducted on a system that, in many respects, recalls the methods of feudal times in England.

The large landowners, or haciendas, most of whom are descendants of the aristocratic Spaniards of pure descent, own frequently as much as ten square miles of land, which are generally cultivated through *encomenderos* or factors.

When it is realised that, in most parts of Chile, two crops

per annum may be obtained, and that, in the central temperate zone, an annual profit of £200 per hectare—two English acres—is not uncommon, and that there are regions in the north where even £1,000 has been obtained, where intensive culture has been practised by scientific experimentalists, the fact that many of these Chilean country gentlemen are millionaires, will not cause surprise.

The landowner usually lives for the greater part of the year on his estate, in a magnificent, old-time mansion that was probably erected in the sixteenth or seventeenth century. The season, he usually spends in Santiago, although many of the Chilean country gentlemen frequently visit Paris, which apparently possesses a magnetic attraction for denizens of the American Continent, both North and South.

Needless to state, the landowner, who is generally a magistrate, with summary powers of jurisdiction over petty offenders, possesses extraordinary influence, which is, however, tempered by the unseen, though far-reaching power, wielded by the cure, or parish priest. The *hacienda*, is usually a refined and courteous gentleman, looked up to and respected by the *rotos* or *peons*, who are the actual cultivators of the land. The Chilean roto, or peon, is a *mestizo*, a descendant of Spaniards and Araucanians. He is the true son of the soil, and the backbone of the country.

To the student of social and economic evolution, he should be an object of especial interest, for he lives under conditions that present strange survival of slavery and serfdom combined with modern wagedom.

To understand his present position, one has to go back to the period of Valdivia and the conquest. The Indians, as their lands were conquered, became slaves to the Spaniards, some of whom engaged in agriculture, while others wooed fortune in the mines. At that period, modern theories with regard to inferior races did not find favour with the Jesuits, who, from the time of the Conquest, boldly proclaimed the equality of Indian and Spaniard, providing that the former became a Roman Catholic. In

support of their teaching they triumphantly quoted: "God hath made of one Race all the nations of the Earth, for to dwell on all the face thereof."

When the Jesuit missionaries first arrived they protested loudly against the system of forcing the Indians to labour, and the cruelties they were subjected to, and demanded that the Indians should either be paid wages as labourers, or left in peace in their territories. This in reality was the letter of the law of Spain, which regarded the Indians as people requiring protection and segregation; but Madrid was a long way from Chile. The enslaved Indians, seeing how important it was for them to obtain the protection of the powerful "black robes," rapidly embraced Christianity; their women intermarried with the Spanish soldiers and settlers, and later with the Basque immigrants, and produced what is to-day the Chilean people. No social disadvantages were incurred by this mixed people, and, in an incredibly short time, in the history of a country, we find Spaniards of pure Andalusian descent and people of mixed Spanish and Indian ancestry, forming a nation, christening a battleship after the old-time Araucanian rebel, "Lautauro," and erecting statues in all the principal cities to his memory, and that of Caupolican, side by side with Spanish conquistadores and cosmopolitan adventurers whose courage and genius have all combined in the task, of making of the Chileans a great and progressive nation.

We boast of the talent of the Anglo-Saxon for absorbing other nationalities; but the annals of England, even, do not afford such an object in race blending, as do those of Chile.

Prejudice seems to linger long in our midst. It is notorious that in this country classical and coined names are used for our men of war, to avoid giving offence to partizans of century old causes. Such is the state of public feeling in England to-day, that a proposal to name a battleship the "Oliver Cromwell," or the "Daniel O'Connell," would arouse the fiercest indignation; yet the Republic of Chile, that has not yet celebrated its hundredth birthday, delights

to honour and perpetuate the memories of Spaniards, Indians, Englishmen, and Irishmen alike, who have contributed their quota to the building of the nation.

For a time the Jesuits were successful in mitigating the miseries of the Indian slaves. Gradually they were allowed more and more time to attend to their own affairs, but the presence of their unpaid labour became a serious menace to poor Spanish immigrants and discharged soldiers, who rapidly sank to the level of the Indians. As in all countries where free workmen existed side by side with slaves, the tendency was, like the "mean whites" of the Southern States, for propertyless free people to sink to the economic level of the slave population.

After the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1767 the Indians lost their best friends, and they relapsed into hopeless slavery, until Don Ambrosio O'Higgins, in 1791, considerably ameliorated their condition; especially in the mines.

The formation of the Chilean Republic was heralded by the abolition of slavery, without compensation, by the way, and the Indians, in the mines and on the land, found themselves nominally free men and women.

Intermarriage, by this time, was doing its work. Pure blooded Indians, except in Araucania, were rarely met with. The common people scarcely understood the stupendous political change, and continued to work as before under the designation of *inquilinos* (tenants). Landowners and mine owners were only too glad to allow any peon, or peasant, a plot of land to cultivate for himself, and common pasture on which to graze his cattle, or breed horses, should he possess any, in return for three or four days' labour out of the seven, and a nominal wage. The requirements of the peon were, and are simple, and the climate being so genial he was able not only to exist, but to live in a species of rude comfort, and with a degree of certainty, foreign to an English farm or urban labourer.

The peon's house was a simple matter, and caused him little trouble or expense. It is erected in the following manner. Two large boards are placed parallel to each other, at the

spot where one of the walls is to stand, about a foot apart. Into this space wet mud or clay, mixed with straw, is poured. The mud is left until it has become dry and hardened by the sun. The boards are then removed, when the first wall of the hut is already standing. The others are fashioned in the same way. Spaces for the door and windows are cut, and *rotos*, during recent years, usually insert glass in the window frames. The roof is formed of maize straw thatched over branches. Outside, a large oven and stove, dome-like in shape, is constructed out of the same convenient mud, and the abode is ready ! Sometimes it is necessary to dig a well, but most parts of Chile are so well watered that this exertion becomes needless.

The furniture is as simple as the house itself. Up to twenty years ago, it consisted of a straw bed, a few primitive cooking utensils and plates, with the roughest imaginable home-made apologies for chairs, and a table. Of late years, however, there has been a marked improvement in the standard of comfort, especially where he has come under foreign, usually British, influences, in the Tarapaca and mining centres. These workmen cultivate patches of land of various sizes, on which they grow beans, potatoes, onions, and garlick. Pigs and poultry abound, although it must be mentioned that visitors are apt to avoid Chilean pork and bacon, as the pigs seem to perform the duty of scavengers. Should he live near a railway, the Chilean peasant invariably grows an assortment of fruit and flowers, which his wife and daughters sell to the passengers, for what, to Englishmen, seem absurdly low sums. He almost invariably owns a horse, which is not surprising seeing that a horse, which in England would cost from £15 to £20, can be bought for as little as £5 or £6 in the capital, Santiago ; and prices rule much lower in the country.

Indeed, so common are horses in Chile, that beggars mounted on sorry looking steeds have been seen in the neighbourhood of Valparaiso ; and the possession of a horse in Chile is no more an indication of wealth, than

the ownership of a dog would be in England. That this statement is no legend, the following corroborative story from Miss May Crommelin's account of a stay in Mendoza, on the other side of the Andes, will show. Miss Crommelin was sitting in the drawing-room of a friend's house, with a window opening on to the street. "Up rode a *gaucho*, dressed in white, if I remember rightly—no worse than his fellows, at any rate. He bestrode a nag, sorry enough, yet still capable, and wore a medal round his neck. Off came his hat in a bow of much grace, but he stretched out his hand towards the window grating, imploring alms. 'It's all right, he's one of our beggars; the town has so many licensed ones who are allowed to come round,' said my hostess looking out over my shoulder. So, instead of dismissing him with a 'Pardon, little brother, for not giving you anything' some small coins were placed in his palm. 'Dios lo pagará' ('God will repay it') was the dignified response, and with a farewell bow of perfect politeness, this beggar on horseback rode on."

Should the peasant be a thrifty man, he may even own cattle which graze, along with the *haciendas*, on common land. Generally speaking, he works about four days a week for the hacienda, and on the remaining two he leisurely cultivates his own land, which, in the genial clime of Chile, produces wonderful results.

He also receives a small sum of money payment in the shape of wages, which of late years has shown a tendency to increase, largely owing to the demand for labour that exists in the Argentine, during the harvest, where labourers are attracted by high wages, not only from the surrounding republics but even from Italy and Spain. One way and another a Chilean peasant receives in money at least an average of 5s. weekly with regularity.

Legally the *roto* can leave his employment, or be discharged, at any moment. In practice this seldom, if ever, occurs. Land in Chile is sub-divided amongst the children, and this practise extends to the *rotos'* possessions. Fortunately a family affection prevails amongst all classes

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in Chilean society, so it is no uncommon thing to see married sons and daughters, living in peace and amity under the parental roof.

Under these conditions the peon lives a contented, even a merry life. He manages to indulge in his besetting vice of drunkenness, whenever he feels inclined, without fear of the consequences. He has his guitar; and in the evening and on festa days, dances and sports while away the time. True, he is fearfully ignorant, and greatly distrusts doctors and medical science; but owing to his Indian ancestry he has a profound belief in the Curandera (wise or medicine woman), who professes to effect wonderful cures, through the means of incantations and Chilean herbs, many of which are genuine enough.

Owing to bad sanitation, and the custom, inherited from the Indians, of treating little more than babies, like adults in the matter of eating and drinking, his children die like flies, but those who survive, thanks to good food and the pure air of Chile, are strong and merry.

Even infantile deaths have their advantages to the Chilean peasants' mind. Are not the dead children *Angelitos*—little angels—who will for ever pray for their parents? Although not pious, he is deeply attached to the church, a remembrance of the days when the priest was the only friend and advocate the Indian or poor man possessed. In much the same manner, and for similar reasons, do the Irish peasants reverence the "Sogarth Aroon!"

Such is the peon or roto of to-day, the man whose labour and endurance is the great national asset of Chile. He it is who reaps her golden harvest, and wins incalculable wealth from forbidding deserts and mines. Up to now, he has scarcely been touched by modern progress, but before many years have passed, when machinery is introduced into the harvest fields, on a similar scale to that which prevails in Argentina; when railways render the export of wine, fruit, and cereals on a gigantic scale profitable, and when the chimneys of innumerable



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factories pollute the pure Chilean air; then—for those who have eyes to see cannot doubt that in the very near future Chile will be the workshop of South America—the patriarchal manner under which the roto lives and labours to-day will be changed, and conditions similar to those that prevail in industrial countries, like the United States and England, will take their place.

Wheat is the most important of Chilean agricultural productions. About 1,100,000 acres are devoted to its cultivation, which yields from 20 to 28 millions of bushels. Señor Vicente Echeverria, the Chilean Consul in London, estimates that of this yield, 10 million bushels are consumed in the country, 5 millions are used for seed purposes, and the remainder, from 5 to 8 millions, is exported. Official statistics state that from 5 to 7 million acres of Chilean land are suitable for wheat, which would yield a production of from 44 to 66 million bushels, of which 20 millions could be exported. When the primitive methods of agriculture are taken into account—corn is thrashed in many parts of Chile to-day, in a similar manner to that described by Moses, only mares instead of oxen being commonly used—no one can doubt that Chile will rank as a great cereal exporting country, as soon as she attracts the attention of capitalist exploiters. About five million bushels of barley are raised on 150,000 acres. The breweries, originally established by German colonists at Valdivia, consume about half the yield, and the remainder is chiefly imported to England, where it is used by the leading brewers in the manufacture of the finest beers! The staple food of the country, the bean, has about 125,000 acres devoted to its cultivation, with the result that one and three quarter million bushels are raised annually. With scientific methods of cultivation, ten to twelve million bushels could easily be grown, which would give rise to a large export trade with the other South American Republics, the inhabitants of which all recognise the excellence of the Chilean bean.

The native habitat of the potato, in the opinion of Darwin, is Chile, so it is not surprising that eleven million

bushels of this familiar tuber are raised on less than 100,000 acres of land. In the south, where the climate is too cold for wheat, the potato grows luxuriantly, as well as in the temperate and tropical zones. If cheap transport to the principal markets existed—and this is bound to come before the world is much older—it would be easy to raise 100,000,000 bushels annually, which would reach Europe as the supply of home-grown potatoes was becoming old and scarce.

Most readers will be surprised to learn that Chile is a great wine producing country. Upwards of 150,000 acres are devoted to the vine, and the annual output of wine ranges from eighty to one hundred and twenty gallons annually. Clarets and burgundies, equal in every respect to the choicest vintages of France, and sherry and port that compare favourably with the generous wines of Spain and Portugal, are produced at trifling expense. Indeed the cheapness of Chilean wine is one of the chief reasons why it is not manufactured on a very large scale. It only requires cheap and rapid transport to render Chile one of the great wine producing countries of the world. Maize, oats, linseed, and hemp are also important crops, and in brewing Chile is making gigantic strides. Although the Chilean vintage was established by the Conquistadores, and may therefore be said to be an old industry, brewing is one of modern growth.

Brewing was commenced by the Germans, who colonized Valdivia in 1850. They established breweries at Puerto Montt and other towns, to satisfy the Teutonic craving for the beer of the Fatherland. To-day well equipped breweries exist at Valdivia, Valparaiso, and numerous large towns, and lager, and other beer, is quite a popular drink, owing to the considerable German and English population of the principal centres. It is said, indeed, that the consumption of beer in this German colony averages nine quart bottles a day for man, woman, and child! This is as powerful evidence of unquenchable German thirst as it is of the prosperity of Valdivia. Valdivia, indeed, is highly prosperous. From small beginnings these capable

people have made steady progress, and are a happy, contented, courteous race. Modern theories of German militarism have made little progress there, and the Englishman will receive a kindly welcome among the Teutons of Valdivia.

As far back as 1649, Ovales noted the cheapness of fruit in Chile. Pears, peaches, cherries, figs, plums, strawberries, oranges, lemons and other fruits grow in profusion and are so cheap as to appear almost valueless. In the South, the apple introduced by Jesuit missionaries now grows wild, and also every fruit that flourishes in warm and temperate regions thrives in Chile. Some considerable export trade is done with dried figs and raisins, and the country is awaiting the establishment of fruit canning and jam factories, to utilise the enormous surplus of fruit produced in this genial clime.

Flower growing, near the large towns, is pursued with some success, on a small scale. Roses, and every flower known to Europeans, grow in wild luxuriance; and on account of the superabundance of the flora of the country, wild as well as cultivated, Apiculture is making rapid strides. In the year 1910, 5,300 tons of honey and 1,000 tons of beeswax were exported, although beekeeping in Chile is still in its infancy.

Owing to the great fertility of the Chilean soil, and its somewhat limited extent, cattle breeding will never assume the gigantic proportions it has reached in the Argentine. The cattle are a mixture of the Iberian or Spanish breed, and Durhams imported from England. Beef is good and cheap in Chile, but the dairy produce is almost entirely consumed in the country. A considerable export trade in hides is carried on in Valdivia, about 3,000 tons annually being exported to foreign markets, chiefly Hamburg.

Chilean sheep are renowned throughout the world for their wool. About 1895, attention was called to the sheep farms in the Magellan district around Punta Arenas. Up to then the country had been looked upon as desolate and worthless, but some astute Welsh, Scotch and Austra-

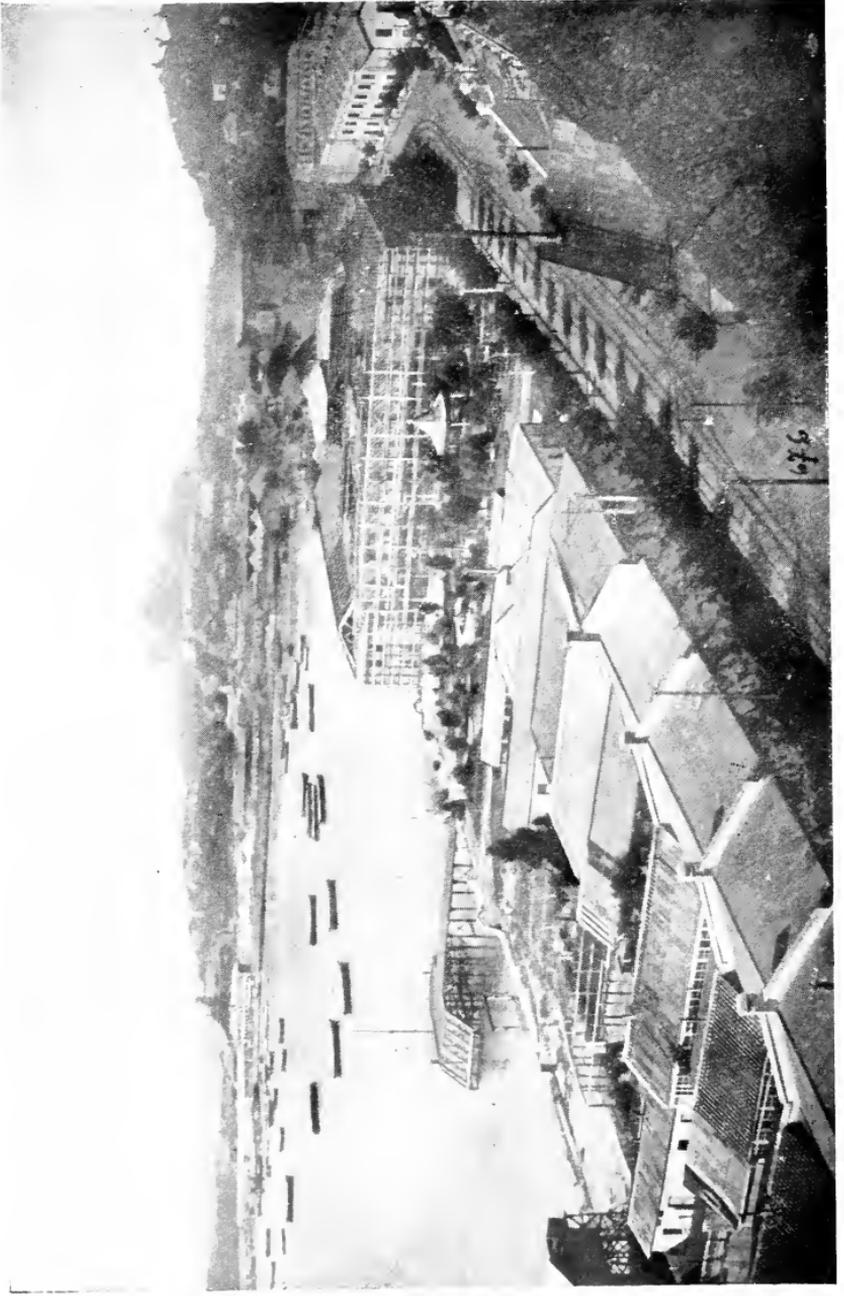
lian farmers realising that the colder the climate the thicker and finer the wool of the sheep becomes, resolved to try the experiment of forming sheep farms, in this forbidding land. The land company which they promoted succeeded beyond the wildest expectations. Within two years a profit of 300 per cent. on the original capital invested was made, and the result was that a great boom in Chilean sheep farms in Terra del Fuego and Patagonia took place in 1905. The inflated prices obtained for shares ended in a fiasco for the speculators, but the sheep farming industry survived the crash, and to-day Chile figures in the fourth place in the world's supplies, of frozen and chilled mutton, coming after Argentina, Australia, and New Zealand.

The value of hides, wool, and tallow exported annually from South Chile amounts to more than £2,000,000, and between 75,000 and 80,000 carcasses of chilled sheep, seven-eighths of which are purchased by England, are exported from this district. Land in Chile can either be rented from the *haciendas* or landed proprietors, or purchased from the State. Most of the land in Central Chile is occupied, but in the South there are vast tracts which can be purchased at about 10s. per acre or £1 per hectare. If preferred, only one third of the purchase price need be paid down; the balance can be paid by instalments ranging over ten years.

The German immigrants are the largest landowners in Chile, the native Chileans of course excepted. The Chilean Government, under the presidency of Montt, subsidized foreign emigrants. A number of German families took advantage of the facilities offered them, and in 1850 formed the nucleus of the German colony at Valdivia. Incredible as it may appear, no one at that period was more ignorant of Southern Chile, the land that was abandoned to the Araucanians, than the Chileans and their Government.

In Santiago it was commonly believed that, South of Valdivia, it rained every day, and that the country was only habitable by savages.

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The forts, even the fortifications at Corral on the Valdivia river, which were erected at enormous expense, to protect the mines from the English and Dutch pirates, were dismantled and overgrown with trees and creepers; the mines were but memories, and even the town of Valdivia was but a collection of shanties, inhabited by people, who in habits, differed but slightly from the primitive savages of the woods.

This, it will be remembered, was before the advent of railways. It will scarcely be credited that currency amongst the inhabitants of the so-called towns and settlements on the frontier was unknown, payment being made through the instrumentality of planks, forestry being at that time the only industry of Valdivia.

Southern Chile is densely wooded with trees of the most valuable character. Capitalists are now awakening to the importance and value of this vast wooded area, and quite recently a French Syndicate has acquired a concession of 1,150 square miles of forest, for the purpose of manufacturing pulps and paper, the Chilean Government, however, retaining the land and mining rights of the concession. The German emigrants, with the industry of their race, soon changed the state of affairs at Valdivia. A modern town arose on the site of the shanties. Churches, schools, and a fine library were erected, and the new Colonists soon established the agricultural and manufacturing possibilities of the region.

Some of the Colonists became owners of enormous areas of land, chiefly through inducing the Araucanian chiefs to grant concessions when under the influence of brandy; but before this evil assumed dangerous aspects, that is before the Indians, deprived of their land, had been induced once more to devastate the country, with a savage and desultory war, the Government stepped in, forbade the Indians to sell or part with their land, and prohibited white men or others from buying it. This wise provision preserved the Araucanians in their possessions, and rendered it possible for them to survive, as an independent people.

Government subsidies to emigration ceased in 1870, but a stream of better-class Germans continued to settle in the South, and have transformed Valdivia into a German Colony. German is the predominating language there, even amongst the children of the settlers, but already their sympathies are Chilean, and, in a few generations, there is little doubt that they will be absorbed into the Chilean people. Those who doubt this statement, would do well to reflect that in Ireland, a country whose political history in the eighteenth century so greatly resembles Chile of the same period, an attempt was made to establish German settlements with the idea of displacing the native Irish.

German or Palatine villages, as they were termed, were formed in Munster and Leinster. Some thousands of German Colonists, with their wives, settled in the Green Isle, but in less than one hundred years they became merged in the general population, and, to-day, all that remains in the Palatine villages to remind us of the Fatherland, are the cumbersome wooden chests and lumbering furniture, that their ancestors brought from their Continental homes in the reign of Queen Anne, which, in a few instances, have survived the ravages of time and the assiduity of collectors of antiques.

Remembering this, and other similar instances, there can be little doubt that young Chile will absorb all the emigrants who are attracted to her wealthy shores, and that, in the course of time, the various nationalities that settle there will forget their animosities, begotten out of European conditions, and will combine for the development and progress of the land of their adoption.

In 1910 Chile exported wheat to the value of £504,401, oats to the value of £252,040, flour £133,172, the exports of barley were valued at £161,661. Beans, vetches, clover and hay were exported to the values of £89,731, £33,423, £45,074 and £17,180 respectively. Nuts produced £89,713 and locust beans were valued at £17,180. Horses worth £56,578 were sent abroad, and the exports of wool and hides amounted to £800,000 approximately in value.

CHAPTER XIII

VALPARAISO—THE COMMERCIAL CAPITAL

The Vale of Paradise—The Earthquake—A City of Lifts and Precipices—Its English Tendencies—Amusements—The Navy—Captains of Industry—Growth of German Influence—Capital Invested in Chile—Decline of our Trade—Why We Fall Behind—The Bishop of the Falkland Islands on our Trade—Defects of our System—English and German Employees—The Chilean Consul on our Methods—Water and Electric Light—Pirates and Earthquakes—Banks, Theatres and Museums—Hotels—Openings for English Tea Rooms—Wages and Trades Unions.

When first one sees the majestic shipping in the roads, and the fine buildings fringing the harbour of Valparaiso, one's mind goes back to Elizabethan days, when the old sea-dog, Drake, after the most desperate battle that man has ever been called upon to wage, against the double forces, of treachery in high places, and the direct enmity of South Pacific tempests, sailed in lonely triumph up the coast of Chile. At that time the crew of the *Grand Captain of the South*, never dreaming of danger from that quarter, "were lazily waiting in Valparaiso harbour for a wind to carry them to Panama with their cargo of gold and Chile wine. As they lounged over the bulwarks, a sail appeared to the northward, and they made ready a pipe of wine to have a merry night with the new comers. As the stranger anchored, they beat her a welcome of their drums, and then watched her boat come alongside. In a moment, all was in confusion. A rough, old salt was laying about him with his fists, shouting in broken Spanish, "Down, dog, down!" and the astounded Spaniards were soon tight under hatches. . . . Hither the *Golden Hind* had been piloted by a friendly Indian in its search for provisions and loot. The little settlement was quickly plundered of all it had worth taking, and Drake's mariners, who for months had been living on salted penguin, and many of whom were suffering from wounds received in an encounter with the islanders of Motha, were revelling in

all the dainties of the Chilean paradise. For three days the mysterious ship, which seemed to have dropped from the skies, lay in the harbour collecting provisions, and then, laden with victuals, it sailed away northward with its prize.”*

Valparaiso, the Liverpool of the Western Coast of South America, is the second port of the Pacific, ranking next to San Francisco in wealth and importance. Seven years only have elapsed, since the “Vale of Paradise” was devastated by one of the most terrible earthquakes known in human history.

“The day had been unusually calm and pleasant. At about 8 p.m. there was a sudden unexpected shock, immediately followed by another; the whole city seemed to swing backwards and forwards; then there was a horrible jolt and whole rows of buildings . . . fell with a terrific crash. The gas, electric light and water mains were at once snapped, and the whole city was plunged in darkness. This, however, did not last long, for, five minutes after the shock, great fires started in the ruined buildings about the Plaza del Orden, and, aided by a violent storm wind, which began about the same time, spread northwards over the city. Between the earthquake and the subsequent fire, ninety per cent of the houses are said to have been destroyed. The arsenal, station, custom-house, hospitals, convents, banks, club-houses, and Grand Hotel were for the most part ruined, for without water, and in the horrible confusion that at first prevailed, it was almost impossible to check the fire. But the authorities showed no lack of energy, and presence of mind. Patrols of troops and armed citizens kept watch; thieves and marauders attempting to loot were shot. The fire was, where possible, checked by dynamite. Messengers on horse-back were sent to Santiago and other places, appealing for help, and especially for provisions. The telegraph lines were destroyed; the railways were wrecked for miles—bridges had twisted, and tunnels had caved in—but communication with Santiago

* Corbett's “Drake,” pp. 78, 79.

seems to have been re-established within a wonderfully short time. This was all the more creditable for the shocks continued on Friday and Saturday, and apparently did not cease until about 6 a.m. on Tuesday morning."*

Some 60,000 of the inhabitants deprived suddenly of shelter, food, and clothing, had to camp out, as best they might, on the heights above the town, in waggons or under carts in the open streets, or to take refuge on the ships in the harbour. Several villages and small towns near Valparaiso, especially Limache, which is supposed to have been the centre of the disturbance, suffered as much as the larger city.

The actual toll of human life was never accurately known; estimates differ, but the probabilities are, that more than a thousand—some say two thousand—of the ill-fated inhabitants, met their death, and at least another thousand were wounded. Property to the value of £20,000,000 was destroyed by the earthquake; yet to-day the calamity is but a remembrance, and but few traces of the destruction are visible.

Valparaiso is a magnificent city in appearance, when approached from the sea. Imagine a gigantic diamond set in emeralds, against a sapphire background, and you have an idea of its beauties. The town is constructed mainly of white stucco, upon a series of mounting slopes, so that its roofs, gleaming in the sunshine, rise in tiers, that start apparently from the edge of the blue Pacific. The site of Valparaiso was selected by the Conquistadores on account of the abundance of trees. It presents a rolling vista, of hills that sweep in an almost unbroken series to the feet of the mighty Andes themselves. Owing to its being built upon a series of steep declivities, Valparaiso is a city whose streets frequently terminate in precipices. Geraniums, fuchsias, and nasturtiums grow spontaneously and luxuriantly on the rocky sides, and communication is secured with the street, below or above, as the case may be, not by stairs, as is common in European cities, such as

* "Chile," G. E. Scott Elliott, p. 276.

Valetta, but by lifts! At every turn, in the centre of Valparaiso, one meets with a declivity, and its attendant lift, a feature which certainly makes the great port of Chile unique among the world's cities.

Valparaiso is the most anglicised of all towns in Chile, with the exception perhaps of Iquique. Even the names of many of the principal streets, Strada Admiral Cochrane, to wit, are English, and the smart Chilean warships that are generally at anchor in the bay, look, and are, so modern and efficient, that it is difficult to believe that they are not British.

English is generally spoken in the streets. The rocks are frequently disfigured with English advertisements, and along the water's edge, British tars, and not infrequently British ne'er do weels, are lounging about, the latter of whom are usually afflicted with the incurable thirst that is peculiar to the fraternity.

Baedeker's guide is a feature of the shop-windows, the "Chilean Times" competes with "The Union," "The Mercurio," and other Spanish papers, and many of the girls whom we meet have a distinctly English air about them. But surely, if slowly, Germany is now gaining the upper hand.

Valparaiso, in addition to its great trade, as the principal port of Chile, and its proximity to the capital, is, like all the Chilean towns, a pleasure-loving city. Theatres and cafés abound, and the ubiquitous Picture Palace is greatly in evidence. The streets are crowded with smartly uniformed officers and bluejackets of the Chilean fleet, who would readily pass for British men of war's men, were it not for the swarthy appearance of the tars, and the fact that they frequently wear moustaches. The soldiers and officers of the Chilean army have more the appearance of German troops, owing to their training, under the iron discipline of Prussian military instructors.

Valparaiso is the residence of the Captains of Industry, who carry out and inspire the mining of the north, the agriculture and sheep farming of the south, and the develop-

ments of railways, roads, and motor traction. For many years Valparaiso was a commercial adjunct of Liverpool; but, during the last decade, German influence has been steadily undermining British industry in Chile's commercial capital. This is a matter that calls for immediate investigation and remedy. The opening of the Panama Canal, during the course of this year, will give an enormous impetus to the trade of Western South America, and unless England wakes up, and wakes up rapidly, the lion's share of this new commerce will undoubtedly fall to Germany and the United States.

According to Mr. Stanley Machin, Chairman of the Council of the British Chamber of Commerce, we have, altogether, £100,000,000 invested in Chile, £20,000,000 of which is sunk in the nitrate industry; so it is evident that we have a considerable stake in the country. Yet from 1907 to 1909 our exports fell from £7,224,000 to £4,632,000, a most serious decrease. During the same years our imports were £5,169,000 and £5,509,000.

One of the principal reasons why our trade was declining, was the neglect of our manufacturers in sending out travellers conversant with Spanish, well equipped with samples, illustrations, and photographs, speaking all languages, and who were authorized to arrange financial details, with their customers, without going through the formality of writing to England for instructions. This the German and United States firms do, thereby securing for themselves an excellent and prominent advertisement.

A plea has been made for the better advertisement of England by more frequent visits of first-class British battleships to Chile! This is an excellent idea, for although the Government and the governing class in Chile are well aware of Britain's overwhelming mastery of the sea, it is well for the officials at home to remember that trade follows the flag, and that there is nothing that brings home to the mind the superiority of British products, so much as an inspection of that marvel of skill and manufacturing ingenuity, an English Dreadnought.

Hooley

The difference between English and German commercial houses, in Valparaiso and the other cities in Chile, is marked. The English employees do their work well and conscientiously, it is true ; but they are prone to manifest a species of insular superiority, and they rather pride themselves, as a rule, in being profoundly ignorant of the people, the country, and the language. Cricket, lawn tennis, polo, and racing occupy their energies ! They never trouble to learn Spanish unless compelled, because they only wish to make friends with their own countrymen ! Germans, on the contrary, mix with the people, acquire a knowledge of the country, its history, and social conditions, and set to work to master Spanish. The principals, too, frequently visit Chile, and personally settle terms, in a manner that subordinates cannot. Is it any wonder that they are gradually acquiring control of Chilean trade ? In this connection Mr. Frin, the British Consul-General of Chile, in his report on the trade of Chile for 1910, says :—
“ I was happy so see one or two heads of British firms who came to this coast to see for themselves the openings for their lines of business, and in each case they told me that the result of their visit had been highly satisfactory.”

“ It is to be hoped that this good example will be followed by more British merchants and manufacturers determined to get business in this country, and ready to make the goods the people want. The French and Germans have been doing this lately, with the best results to themselves. *Made in Germany*, I find, is a phrase that has been an excellent advertisement for German merchandise. Traders now go direct to Germany for goods which they formerly bought through British intermediaries.”

Valparaiso has an excellent water supply, and is lighted throughout with electric light. The suburbs are linked up to the town with electric trams, which carry, for 1d. and $\frac{1}{2}$ d. fares, over thirty million passengers annually. Its drainage system was carried out by an English company over twenty-five years ago.

It seems difficult when one visits Valparaiso, to realise

that a little over three hundred years ago, Drake sacked the town, which then consisted of a few houses, and church, and captured the only vessel in the bay. Hawkins, the Buccaneer, emulated Drake's achievement some years later, and it was not until 1647, when the town was strongly fortified, that the inhabitants could sleep secure against surprise by pirates. Six terrible earthquakes have devastated Valparaiso in recent times, in 1730, 1822, 1839, 1851, 1873, and finally in 1906. It has been destroyed by fire and bombarded by the Spaniards since the establishment of the Republic, yet every successive misfortune seems but to have added to its beauty and vitality. The importance of Valparaiso, as a business centre, is evinced by the number of banks, and the existence of a stock and commercial exchange. There are numerous libraries, institutions, and learned societies, including a natural history museum. The Victoria, Odeon and Municipal theatres are quite the equal of the London pleasure resorts, as far as architecture goes, and the churches are mostly magnificent buildings. Messrs. Balfour, Lyons & Co. have an immense engineering factory, and another great commercial undertaking is the factory of the Sociedad de Maestranzas.

The park of Playa Aucha is one of the most beautiful in the world, and the Victoria Plaza is a spacious promenade which is overlooked by some of the finest buildings in Valparaiso.

The hotels in Valparaiso or Santiago which cater for English visitors, demand, and obtain, excessively high prices, but in the Chilean hotels, where the native cooking is excellent, it is possible to live well for 10s. or even 6s. per day.

Generally speaking, the hotels are clean and comfortable, although apt to be noisy, and the servants assume an air of familiarity unknown in England. They are obliging and polite, however, to a degree. Seeing the number of English residents in Valparaiso and Santiago, it seems surprising that no one with small capital and knowledge

has thought fit to open a tea-room on the lines of Messrs. Lyons. It is almost impossible to get a cup of drinkable tea, anywhere in Chile, unless you make it yourself; and there is no doubt that an English tea-room would receive large patronage, from the English colony and the middle class Chileans, who are imitative of things English. Wages are fairly high in Valparaiso, according to the Chilean standard; and modern relationships between capitalist and workman prevail. Trades Unionism is a growing force. Socialism is well to the fore, and, owing to the large employment of women as tram car conductors, and in many other occupations, the working woman in Valparaiso is rapidly becoming imbued with the revolutionary views of her British and Continental sisters, although, up to now, the middle and upper class Chilenas have evinced no disposition to declare in favour of woman's rights, being at present well contented with their comfortable lot.

The employment of women as tram-conductors in Valparaiso has been a great success. In their Holland uniforms and straw hats, these feminine officials look very neat, and, by common consent, they carry out well, and with civility, the duties entrusted to them.

Mr. Cordemoy, in his book "Au Chile," states that the innovation dates from the war between Peru and Bolivia (1879-1883), when Chile, having to keep every available man under arms, was obliged to have recourse to women, but the change is generally supposed to date back to the time of a strike, when, the men having refused to come to terms, one of the wives volunteered for duty in her husband's stead. The innovation is certainly a good one, and so is the permission accorded to women in Chile to plead at the bar. Mr. Cordemoy was told that the men, so far from being jealous of the success achieved by a young female barrister, Miss Mathilda S. Tromp, were wont, at first, even to let her win. We agree with the distinguished author that the statement, however creditable to Chilean gallantry, must be accepted "avec un fort grain de doute."

Women doctors, too, are recognised in Chile ; it is said that a proposal is afoot for the establishment of a feminine police force, soon to be followed, no doubt, by the organisation of an amazon army.

Since Valparaiso is the most English of all Chilean cities we may not unfittingly conclude this chapter with some remarks concerning the English in Chile.

One is reluctant to join, without good reason, the ranks of those who think it their duty to decry things and men English ; but it seems to be an undeniable fact that, though the British are the most numerous, and the most prosperous of all the foreign communities in Chile, their position in the country is not wholly satisfactory. Not merely are they allowing themselves, as we have just shewn, to be ousted commercially by their German and American rivals ; but, though living in a country where, while the memory of Cochrane and other English heroes is green, everything is in their favour, they are failing, as a whole, to show in Chile those characteristics that have made England what she is. 'Tis true that the young Englishman in Chile suffers under certain disadvantages. At a time of life when wise restraint is very necessary to him, he lands in a city, such as Valparaiso, where temptations of all sorts are more abundant than they are at home, and he is deprived of the influences which might have prevented him from giving way to them. In Valparaiso, he will have no home, in the usual sense of the word ; he will find himself in a land where saloons are many, and inducement to keep out of them are comparatively few ; where the girls are physically, rather than intellectually, attractive. The result is that, bringing with him the usual full measure of insular prejudice, which bids him at heart despise his hosts, he will take his pleasures as they come to him ; yet, while mixing freely with the Chilenos, will never learn really to sympathise with nor to understand them. He will, in his letters home, often abuse unfairly a country that has been to him a good foster-mother ; and will thus show himself devoid of the elements of gratitude. Mean-

while he will work conscientiously enough for his employer; but too often, he will not trouble to learn more than a few words of Spanish; and, outside business hours, he will never give a thought to business. The German, on the other hand, though not better endowed mentally than the Englishman, is more pushing, more interested in his work, and is usually proficient in Spanish, and closer to the real Chile. What the Englishman in Chile needs to do, is, without shedding his patriotism, to identify himself more closely with the land of his adoption, and, to assist in governing, and in influencing it for good, as well as in exploiting it; and to see that, instead of giving to it the worst that is in him, and taking from it the worst that is in his hosts, he gives to it of that best—honesty, cleanness, enterprise, industry—which has caused England to be honoured in the past above all the nations of the world. There can be little doubt that the Chilean, excepting the more intelligent and enlightened of them, does not love the *gringo*. In fact, his attitude towards them varies between dislike—or something nearly akin to it—and silent disdain; though in the latter feeling there is probably a certain element of “bluff.” Let it not be supposed, however, that a foreigner observing the conventions of the country, will receive from the Chileans anything less than courtesy and consideration. The *gringo* cannot expect to, nor is it right that he should, win his way, all at once, into the confidence and respect of his South American hosts. 'Tis, however, a consummation devoutly to be wished, for the sake of all parties. Chile, beyond all other things, needs foreign immigration, foreign labour, and foreign capital. Upon the *gringo* her national prosperity must largely depend.

CHAPTER XIV

WOMEN AND SOCIAL LIFE

Beauty of Chilean Women—Un-Emancipated Young Ladies—Growth of Modern Ideas on Femininity—Woman's Right to Labour—Female Tram Conductors—The Manta—How it is worn—The Chilena as a Coquette—Woman the Supporters of the Church—The Chilean Attitude towards Catholicity—The Levelling Manta—The Charity of Chilean Women—The Lady Journalist in Chile—Lady Artists and Musicians—The Season in Santiago—The Upper Classes—Their Charm of Manner—Many of British and Irish Descent—The Opera House—Musical Proclivities of Chileans—Their Amusements—The Zamacueca Dance—The Races—Political Discussions to be avoided by Visitors—Chilean National Pride—Club Life in Chile—Unrest of the Working Class in the Large Towns—Trades Unions—Socialists in Chile—British Workmen not wanted in Chile—Chile as a Field for Small Capitalists.

The women of Chile have long been renowned for their beauty. Owing to the cool air from the Andes, and the moist breezes from the Pacific, they possess a delicacy of complexion, which vies with that of the fairest English ladies, while they have preserved the ancestral charms, which have made the Spanish so renowned.

“There is not,” says the Spanish poet Campoamor, “among a dozen precious daughters of Andalusia, a pair of eyes beautiful enough to match those of the *Chilena*.” “The fatal gift of beauty” must however be considered in the light of a compensation, for the amount of chaperon and etiquette, with which the Chilean young lady is hampered. Although she is educated, in the belle-lettres sense, and usually speaks French and English, in addition to her native Spanish, she has not yet been able to emancipate herself from the restrictions that national custom and tradition have imposed upon her.

During late years, since it has become customary for the daughters of rich Chileans to finish their education in Europe, advanced ideas concerning femininity have become quite common amongst the educated Chileans; and,

amongst other things, the suffrage movement in this country is attracting their attention, and doubtless a Chilean counterpart of the Votes for Women agitation will in due course evolve.

In the poorer circles, woman's right to labour is certainly both encouraged and respected. Large numbers of women are employed in different capacities by the Government, including the lady tram-conductors of whom we have already spoken.

The national dress of the *Chilena* is the *manta*, a large square shawl, which is worn over the head and shoulders like a hood. The *Chilena* has her own charming way of wearing the *manta*, which make it a formidable weapon of coquetry, in which art she excels. Simple as the garment is, she knows how to impart to the folds a grace and effectiveness that is unattainable by a Paris gown. Social custom ordains that all women, irrespective of rank, should wear the *manta* when attending church.

The women of Chile in fact are as clever in manipulating their draperies generally as were the women of Sappho's tale in lifting a skirt to reveal dainty ankles. But this is a topic which can best be treated by a lady. Let Miss Crommelin speak: "There is quite an art in pinning these shawls prettily, tight to the back hair To see some five or six of these black ladies gossiping together in the street gives one quite a curious idea as of nuns broken loose. Ladies wear silk shawls or embroidered china crêpe ones, their humbler sisters are content with cashmere or alpaca. Surely it is a pleasing idea that all classes should thus appear garbed alike in the House of God, the Court of Heaven. Even English visitors peeping into a church here (Valparaiso) are expected to put on a *manta*; a bonnet would be quite disrespectful head-gear."*

The convention that all church-goers in Chile shall wear the *manta* is observed with great strictness, as witness the following from the diary of a distinguished English traveller.†

* Across the Andes. † Sir W. H. Russell.

“ I found my wife at home with a troubled air. When I left her in the morning she was going to Mass at the Cathedral, and not having a manta she thought it would answer as well to wear a black bonnet, veil, and shawl. She entered the cathedral and knelt down quietly in a nook near the entrance to pray. She was dressed entirely in black. Presently she was touched on the arm, and looking up she saw a man in priests’ vestments who pointed to the door and made signs that she must leave the church ; he left no room for doubt about his meaning, for he caught her by the shoulder as if to turn her out. She shook off his hand, and walked to the door, the priest by her side gabbling about ‘manta.’ My wife was very indignant. So was I.”

It is interesting to note how accurately the style and quality of the manta, and the way it is worn, betrays the social status and the personal taste of the wearer. The Chilean woman, of all social grades, is a great Church goer. The men, on the contrary, seldom attend, and if it were not for the women the Church in Chile would exist only in name, especially in the big cities. From this it must not be supposed that the Chilean is at war with the Catholic Church. Far from it. He is an opponent of clericalism, but he is not opposed to progressive Catholicity, and although he only attends the great festivities of his religion, mainly because of the music and spectacle, as a general rule, he rather prides himself upon the churchgoing proclivities of his wife and daughter. “ Religion was made for woman not for man,” is his opinion.

The *manta* is worn at church for the purpose of putting the whole feminine portion of the congregation on a level during the service, so that they may worship undistracted by visions of costly creations of the modiste’s art, which are calculated to arouse feelings of envy and jealousy instead of piety in the female breast.

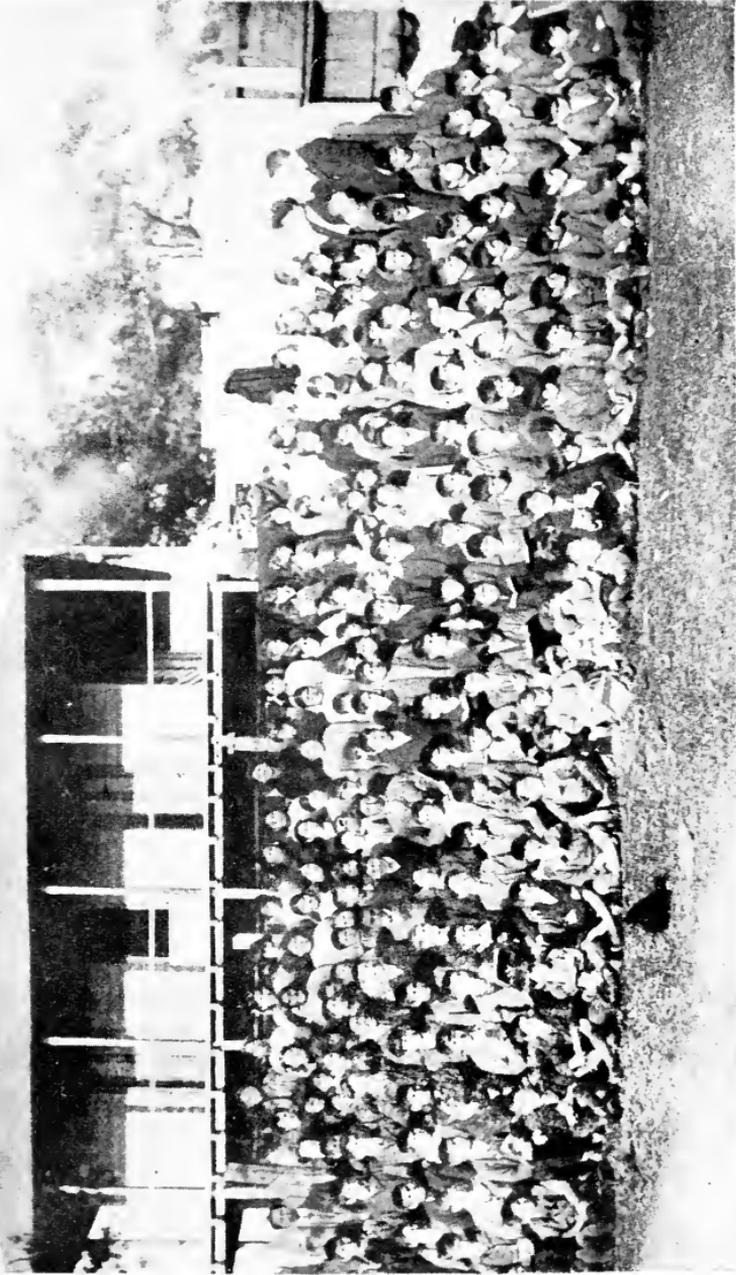
Hence, as nearly all the women attend mass daily, the *manta* is universally worn in the mornings, in the Chilean towns ; but in the afternoon, the ladies appear in costume

and hats of the latest European fashion, and are the cynosure of all eyes, as they walk or drive.

Apart from church-going and special functions, such as *fiestas*, the Chilean young lady has occupations and fun enough to keep time from hanging heavy on her hands. In the morning there is the inevitable ride, and then usually some shopping. In the afternoon, some will be occupied in making their own dresses, or, on one day in the week, in sewing clothes for the poor or in walking in the town. Occasionally, in summer, a party of them, with two *mozos*, in attendance behind, will ride out to a picnic and bathing party, on the sea-shore; or, on a moonlight night, they will fare forth, in company with some young men, for an *al-fresco* supper. When things are dull socially, a "surprise party" will perhaps be planned. The leading social spirits of the place, of both sexes, arrange to have a dance on a certain date, fix the number and names of the invités, and decide upon some good-natured host and hostess, who will not resent a "surprise." A judicious hint is thrown out. "Would you much mind if one evening—?" If she wouldn't, the lady of the house will, one evening, hear knocking at her front door; and a moment later her house is invaded by half a hundred merry-makers, some of whom are quite unknown to her. Hastily all is made ready, the *drugget* is laid down, and supper, which the guests have been obliging enough to bring with them, is prepared. The invasion, we imagine, would not appeal to many English hostesses; but it certainly has its attractive side to youths and maidens on whose hands time may hang heavy. As *Pierré Loti*, in his dreamy moonlit way, puts it in the "*Passage de Carmencita*," "*Si nous dansions une Sema Couëque*."

The Chilean women are renowned for their small feet and dainty footwear, which they delight to suggest, rather than display, by a swish of the skirt, peculiar to the daughters of the South.

It is not only in coquetry, that the *Chilena* shines. The history of the country shows that, at all periods of national



CHILJAN SCHOLARS AT CHOLIBOL

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peril, the women of Chile have displayed a heroism and bravery that render them conspicuous in the annals of their sex. They have also always been closely identified with works of charity, and visitors to the Chilean towns are often surprised, when they question workmen or cab-drivers, as to who are the owners of the many beautiful residences, to be told, "Oh, that is the house of the lady who presides over the Children's Hospital, Señor. I do not know her name!"

Many of the humanitarian enterprises for which Chile is justly famous in South America, owe their initiative to women. To publish the names of the Chilean ladies who have distinguished themselves in the cause of charity during the past few years would fill pages. From the icy fields of Patagonia to the scorching desert of Tarapaca you will everywhere hear the names of such women as Señora Doña Juana Ross de Edwards, Señora Doña Magdalena Vicuna de Subercaseaux, and Señora Emiliana Subercaseaux, the wives of the great artists and caricaturists, reverently spoken of, by all nationalities of the poor and the afflicted.

The lady journalist has long been an institution in Chile. Señora Prato de Serratea is well known, as a talented contributor to the Press, all over South America as well as in Santiago, and a generation ago, the poems of Doña Mercedes Marin de Solar were received with acclamation.

Many Chilean ladies have won fame in the field of art. Señorita Celia Castro obtained the bronze medal for her two character studies, "La Taille" and "Une Vieille" at the Paris Exhibition of 1889, and two of the most talked of works in the Salon a few years ago, "The Enchantment" and "Qu'il Mourut" came from the brush of the talented Señora Doña Rebeca Matte de Iniguez.

One of the first musicians in South America, who only recently charmed Paris, is Señorita Amelia Cocq, a native of Coquimbo.

Dancing is a passion amongst all classes and conditions in Chile. The upper and middle classes have the same dances as in Europe; but the workpeople and farm hands

almost invariably dance the Zamacueca, which somewhat resembles the "cake-walk." This dance gives rise to great hilarity. The girls flaunt gaily coloured handkerchiefs at their sunburnt partners, who advance insinuatingly, only to be eluded by the coquetish señoritas. At festa times, the rotos, or workpeople, dance all night, especially when the anniversary of the Declaration of Chilean Independence, September 18th, is being celebrated by all classes, with a verve and gaiety that is unknown either in England or the United States.

The races which are held in September at Santiago, while there are numerous meetings during the year at other towns, are an extremely fashionable function, and are attended by everyone who is anyone in the Capital. Guests, in Chilean houses, would do well to abstain from entering into political discussions with their hosts and from passing facetious remarks, concerning the supposed frequency with which revolutions occur in the South American Republics. The Chilean national pride is very apt to be hurt at silly observations concerning the government and progress of his country, and the greatest care should be taken to avoid topics that might offend the susceptibilities of the native. A few ignorant and domineering Englishmen have already wrought considerable commercial harm through unintentionally wounding the national pride of some Chilean business men, a fact of which their German rivals took prompt advantage. Even past events are dangerous topics to discuss, and references to Balmaceda and the Civil War, are usually bad form for strangers.

Clubs play a very important part in Chilean life. The Union Club of Santiago rivals in comfort any of the Pall Mall establishments; the Club Hipico, the counterpart of our National Sporting Club, is the headquarters of all those interested in horses and sport, and, besides these, there are numerous clubs, the rendezvous of professional, business and political men of all stations of life. Amongst the working class in the large towns, the spread of educa-

tion is rapidly producing a feeling of unrest and dissatisfaction with social conditions, similar to that which prevails among the democracy of the old world and the United States.

Trades Unions are becoming powerful, there is a disposition to strike against low wages and excessive house rents, and one of the most important signs of the times is that there are three Socialists, elected by large majorities, sitting in the Chamber of Deputies, or House of Commons of Chile.

It should be thoroughly understood that Chile presents no opportunities to the English, or indeed to the European workman, if the Southern Italian is, perhaps, excepted. A Britisher could not enter into competition with the Chilean working class, who live mainly on beans, and consequently only earn the low wages that provides them with their standard of life. They are much stronger than average Europeans, and are quick to learn a new trade that requires dexterity and craftsmanship. On the other hand, Chile offers exceptional opportunity to anyone possessed of from £300 to £1,000, who is capable of starting in trade or business or agriculture.

The Chileans traditionally dislike retail trade, and, consequently, most of the principal shops are controlled by Italians and Germans, the latter of whom are steadily ousting British firms, owing to the attention they pay in procuring the goods their customers prefer.

CHAPTER XV

SANTIAGO

From Valparaiso to Santiago—Santiago—Plaza de Armas—Architecture—Pacios—The Alameda—Quinta Normal—Zoological Gardens—Moneda—Visibility of Ministers—Rock of Santa Lucia—Autocratic Chilenos—The Opera House—Staring—Spanish Mediævalism—In the Churches—Chilean Melancholy—Some Santiagan Disasters.

From Valparaiso to Santiago by train is an easy and pleasant journey. When you have left the blue waters of Valparaiso Bay, and the pretty villas of Vina del Mar, the line turns inland into a wooded valley, and out, beyond the hills, into an open vine-country. Beyond Limache, a small town of some four thousand inhabitants, many of whom were rendered homeless, and some slain, in the terrible earthquake of 1906, of which Limache is supposed to have been the centre,* we cross a district of well-watered arable and pasture land shaded by long lines of magnificently drooping weeping willows, and later by rows of poplars, whose slender golden forms bright in the autumn sun, remind one of those that deck the fertile plains of Burgundy. We pass cosy brown farms, set in walnut orchards; and along the roads we see lumbering the Chilean waggons and osier-sided carts filled with pumpkins, and other autumn fruit and vegetables. Gradually the train begins to climb, and before long we have left the pastoral district and are in the midst of rocky mountain scenery, where the train crosses lofty bridges, and curves dangerously beside chasms and precipices. * In the olden days, railway travelling of this kind in Chile was very far from safe, and the English engine-drivers, between storm-

* See pages 148, 149.



floods, unsafe bridges, and worn out engines, had an anxious time of it; but now the number of accidents is small. For all that, the majority of travellers are not sorry when they are steaming safely across the plain towards the famous city of Santiago—otherwise St. James.

Santiago, while far superior to most Spanish towns in modern requirements, such as tramways, and so forth, remains essentially Spanish in the style of its architecture, and in the design of the larger houses built around a patio, or central court. The streets, as is usual in South American cities, cross each other at right angles. The most important of them are those that run into the Plaza de Armas, a vast square, nearly two hundred yards across, upon which front the Cathedral, the Archbishop's Palace, the Post Office, and Municipal and other buildings. Two sides of the Plaza—the Portal Fernandez Concha and the Portal M'Clure—are arcaded, something after the manner of parts of the Rue de Rivoli at Paris. Above the Portal Fernandez Concha is the Gran Hotel de Francia. This square, with its vistas, east to the distant Andes, and west to the Cordilleras, with its well-designed central garden, is a charming spot, and conveys a distinctly good impression to the newly arrived traveller. In the afternoon, from five to six, it is the rendezvous of the Chilean smart set, and 'tis here that those must come who would see the *beldades* (fair ones) of Santiago at their best.

The globe trotter, in general, we say, will be pleased with the Plaza de Armas; but the antiquary and the architectural expert will not; for, truth to tell, the cathedral and other buildings, though large and imposing in their way, by no means satisfy the fastidious taste. Architecture, as an art, is little understood in Southern America, the conditions, in a country liable to severe earthquakes, being wholly against its development. Indeed, when one realises to how large an extent stucco—sometimes tinted terra-cotta or rose pink—has been employed in the decoration, one can only be surprised at the effectiveness

of the results obtained. The majority of the designs are of a somewhat florid, classical-renaissance type.

The more important buildings in the main streets are three, or sometimes four, storeys high, the upper ones being usually sub-let by the owner. Some houses have three patios. On to the first of these, which is often a delightful spot, with ferns and flowers, orange trees with golden fruit, and central fountains from which cool water splashes, the dining and drawing rooms open. This is as far as the stranger penetrates. The second patio is reserved for the family, and the third for the servants.

Another fine promenade in the city is the Alameda, a magnificent avenue, adorned with statues of Chilean heroes, planted with trees, and made pleasant by streams of running water which cool the hot air of mid-day. The Alameda and the Park, at the south of the town, are beloved of those to whom life consists in gazing, and being gazed at. But the most charming perhaps, though by no means the most fashionable, of all resorts of Santiago, is the Quinta Normal, which is a sort of Kew Garden and Zoological Garden in one. Here you may wander, far from the madding crowd, by delicious waters, and by green, wooded walks; and here you may see, what some travellers still expect to see ranging at large over the plains of Chile, some of her national beasts and birds. Here the condor and the *huemul* (stag), the two creatures which share the honour of appearing upon the Chilean coat of arms, will blink at you or ignore you; and here you can see, more or less fresh from his home in the distant hills, the guanaco and the llama. The Quinta Normal has also an excellent museum, and an agricultural college.

One of the most important buildings in Santiago is the Moneda, a huge, single-storied balustrated erection, designed by the architect, Toesca, who is responsible also for the cathedral. The Moneda, as its name implies, was built originally as a centre for the financial administration of the country, but it is now the seat of Government,

and the official residence of the President of the Republic. It is there that distinguished visitors to Chile usually call, soon after their arrival, to pay their respects to the President, who, equally with his ministers, is a more easily accessible official than is any member of our confraternity of Downing Street.

But it is not to the Moneda that the average visitor, especially the visitor who loves history, will beg to be taken. It is rather to the Cerro de Santa Lucia, the rock famous in the history of Chile as the first stronghold of Pedro de Valdivia and his companions, when marching southward to the conquest of the stubborn Araucanians. This is how Ovalles speaks of it. "In the valley, two leagues from the great Cordillera, by the side of the river Mepocho, God has planted a mountain of a beautiful aspect and proportion, which is like a watch tower from which the whole plain is discovered with the variety of its culture in arable and meadow." As a historical monument, Santa Lucia no longer appeals. Stucco vases, balustrades, palm trees, restaurants, and the other usual embellishments of a rock garden, the work of one Vicuna Mackenna, have hopelessly modernized the rock. Only as a watch tower it retains its primitive virtues; for, as a point from which to view Santiago, it has no rival. Below you the white city, chequered by small green squares that are the patios, is unrolled like a map. Beyond, above the plains, the snow-capped peaks of the Andes rise into the blue sky.

The winter, commencing in June, is the season which Santiago devotes to social festivities. Unless one is provided with good introductions, it is almost impossible to become intimate with the aristocratic coterie of old families, who form the exclusive set in the capital. Once the ice is broken, however, you will find that the Chilean upper classes possess singular charm of manner and bearing. Although a legitimate pride in their ancestry—for many of the leading families are descended from the oldest Spanish nobility—is observable, they are prouder

of being Chileans and progressive Republicans than of their Castilian descent.

On the other hand, they retain just sufficient of that Spanish reserve, which keeps mere vulgar wealth and ostentation in its proper place. Hence we do not see such a caricature of democracy displayed in Santiago as we do in New York or even in Park Lane!

British and Irish names are extremely common amongst the Chilean aristocracy. They are the descendants of the many adventurers who settled in Chile during the eighteenth century, who married Chilean Señoritas and adopted the Roman Catholic Faith. They are to-day pure Chileans, so far as speech and customs go. The rapidity with which Chile assimilates foreigners of all classes is remarkable. Russians, Germans, Italians, and even Irish, frequently preserve their language and national characteristics for generations in England, and the United States of America; but Chile, and South America generally, appears to absorb foreigners almost immediately, probably owing to the ease with which Spanish is mastered.

The Opera House in Santiago, which was, until Mr. Hammerstein erected his ambitious structure in Kingsway, the third largest in the world, is always occupied by a first-class Italian Company between June and August, and is the resort of fashionable Chile during the season.

It literally sparkles with jewels, and glows like an exotic plant-house with beauty and colour. Everyone in Chile is musical. Even the street boys whistle airs from operas, and thanks to the proximity of Valparaiso and British sailors, popular music hall melodies are by no means unknown to the poorer classes. As far back as 1822, Captain Hall was surprised at the frequency with which he heard boys whistling English airs in Valparaiso.

In the afternoon the Chilena either goes shopping, or drives or motors, in the Alameda, or the Cousino park. The middle classes promenade the Alameda—the men in silk hats and black frock coats, or in jacket suits and bowlers, the girls in costumes that would not be out of

place in Hyde Park—there they listen to the band in the plaza, or else repair to the cheaper parts of the opera, the theatre, or the numerous picture palaces, which the Chileans revel in.

The Chilean youths, as they saunter through the streets in the afternoon, or during the evening *Paseo*, are given to staring in a very cold-blooded way, that would not be tolerated in England, but is not considered bad form in Valparaiso or Santiago. It is even permissible to make audible comments upon the members of the fair sex whom you may meet in the streets. As it is quite within their power to put an end to such familiarities, should they care to do so, we can only conclude that the ladies accept them with pleasure, as a natural expression of homage to beauty. And, indeed, they answer, with their eyes. There are some pretty comedies to be seen in the Plaza, among these Chileños, who, though touched, as regards clothes, with the insouciance and gaiety of the Parisian, have yet maintained much of the characteristic dignity of both the Spanish and the American Indian races.

If one would realize how the Spanish spirit of mediævalism survives unchanged in Chile, one has but to visit a few of the many processional religious festivals that are still to be seen in the country; such, for example, as the famous procession that takes place on Good Friday at Quillota. The great feature of this festival is a large Pelican, symbolizing the God-Man piercing his side, from which flows nourishment for his starving little ones. Thousands of worshippers watch the passage of the mystic bird.

Mediævalism still shows itself equally in the sacred buildings. Those black shadows flitting ghost-like about the churches of Santiago, or of any other Chilean town, impart to the religious life of the country a peculiar atmosphere of the cloister. You see the slight, dark form glide towards the altar, and kneel—not on a prie dieu; for there are no chairs in the majority of Chilean churches—but on a small woollen or fur mat, which she has brought with her.

There the nun prays devoutly; makes the sign of the cross upon the forehead, the lips, the shoulders, and the breast. Her prayer finished, she repeats the formula: "By the sign of the Holy Cross deliver us from our enemies, O Lord! In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost. Amen!" Then, silently as it came, the shadow vanishes. There is in it all something of the ancient pride, of the ancient superstition, too, of mediæval Spain.

That reminds one of the other aspect of Chilean character. One hears, from travellers and writers, the usual complaints of the noise of Chilean streets, in a town such as Santiago; but, on the other hand, some observers come to a wholly different conclusion. M. Cordemoy, for example, declares that he was much struck by the quiet sadness of Chile, which he attributes in part to the influence of Indian progenitors, who are a somewhat melancholy race, speaking little, except on public occasions, and laughing so rarely as to lead one to suppose that there must be a tax on hilarity. "Even the phlegmatic English" declares that author, "show a *gaieté folle*, when compared with the Chilean. . . . Even in towns of pleasure, such as Vina del Mar or Penco, you do not hear the beach resounding with merriment, I will not say as at Dieppe or Trouville, but even as at Brighton or Hastings." Children's laughter is never heard in Chilean streets, nor do University students paint the town red. No; they leave college as austere as might a group of Sacristans. The Frenchman apparently found Santiago as depressing as a chapter of "Rosmersholm." This comment, from such a source, upon a nation whose Mecca is Paris, is curious and interesting. Perhaps he overstates the case somewhat. But let the traveller in Chile form his own impression.

* * * * *

Santiago, like most Chilean cities, has passed through many troubles. In 1783, an overflow of the Mapocho river caused immense damage in the town "among the

worst results of the flood"—the irony is Mr. Scott Elliot's—being a poem by a Carmelite nun, whose convent was isolated by water. I quote the following gem:—

“Compared to the torments
That we felt on beholding
The people so attentive
When they carried us across without ceremony
In the arms of common labourers,
Some of us took it badly ;
Others fell down upon the earth,
And of some who were much embarrassed
They actually made fun.”*

During the Christmas festivities of 1863 occurred a still more terrible disaster. A gorgeous fête was in progress at the church, which had been gaudily decorated for the occasion with all sorts of inflammable material, and illuminated with lanterns. In the midst of the rejoicings, when the church was crowded with some three thousand persons, mostly women from the best families of Santiago, the hangings caught fire. There was a general stampede, at the end of which two thirds of the congregation were suffocated, trampled, or burned to death.

* Arana's "Historia de Chile." quoted Scott Elliot's "Chile." p. 123.

CHAPTER XVI

CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF CHILE

The Constitution—Executive—Legislature—Congress—Chamber of Deputies—The Senate—Voting Qualifications—Chilean Citizenship—Naturalization—Illiteracy—The Aristocracy and their Influence on the Government—Judges and Magistrates—Religion—Churches—Salaries of Ecclesiastics—Education—Free but not Compulsory—Schools and Colleges—Advantages offered to Chileans—Foreign Schools—Public Libraries—Chilean Students trained Abroad—The Officers of State—Their Salaries—The Police Force—Prisons and Prisoners—Convict Settlements—Political Offenders—Juan Fernandez—Taxation—Conscription—Miscarriages of Justice.

The Constitution of Chile establishes that the Government of the country shall be republican, and that it shall be ruled by a President. The President is elected for a period of five years, but is not eligible for two successive terms. According to its constitution, the Republic of Chile is "one and indivisible," unlike Argentina, Brazil, and Mexico, which consist of Federal States.

Article 4 of the Constitution decrees that "the Sovereignty inheres essentially in the Nation, which delegates its exercise to the authorities, established by this constitution." The chief powers of the State are lodged in the Executive, Legislative, and Judicial bodies. The Executive is controlled by the President and Ministry, which is nominated by the President and forms a Cabinet of six members.

The Legislature consists of two chambers, the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies, which corresponds to our House of Commons. Unlike our House of Lords, the Senate, as well as the Chamber of Deputies, is elected directly by the people.

Equality of representation prevails in Chile, as each deputy represents an electoral district of 30,000 inhabitants, for the period of three years.

The Chamber of Deputies, consists at present of 94



A VIEW IN VALDIVIA, GERMAN COLONY

members, which is slightly in excess of the total population of Chile on the proportional system of representation in vogue.

The Senators are thirty-two in number, and are elected for six years, in the proportion of one Senator, for every three, or fraction of three Deputies. Members of Congress, as both Houses are termed, are unpaid. Any citizen who is a voter is eligible to become a candidate for the House of Deputies, so long as he possesses the modest income of 500 pesos annually,* so it will be seen that the property qualification is one that even the most ardent democrat would not be inclined to grumble at.

Would-be Senators must be at least thirty-six years of age, and in possession of the not extravagant income of 2,000 pesos. Members of Congress, are prohibited from holding any paid public post, neither can they vote upon any measure in which they have a financial interest.

Congress meets annually on June 1st, and sits until September 1st, the winter months and the Santiago season. In the event of an emergency, the President can call an extraordinary session at any time.

All male Chileans are entitled to vote for both Houses, providing that they are able to read and write, and possess a trifling property qualification.

Married men may exercise a voter's privilege at the age of 21, but bachelors have to wait until they reach 25, before they can have a voice in their country's destiny. Chile is still a long way from possessing manhood suffrage, as the obligation to read and write disfranchises an enormous number of the working class, especially in the country. About 60 per cent. of the army recruits are classed as illiterate, so the percentage of native born Chileans, who are unable to exercise this prerogative of citizenship is considerable.

Chileans are defined as follows:—

1st.—Those born within the territory of Chile.

* The exchange value of a peso is at present about 1s. 6d.

- 2nd.—Children of Chilean parents, born in a foreign country, by the sole fact of becoming domiciled in Chile. Children of Chileans born abroad, when the father is on the service of the Republic, are Chileans, and eligible for any office or dignity in the State.
- 3rd.—Foreigners who, having resided for one year in the Republic, shall declare, before the municipal authorities, their desire to become Chilean subjects, and shall ask for naturalization papers.
- 4th.—Those who may become naturalized, by special favour of Congress—a mark of esteem sometimes conferred upon foreigners, similar to the Corporation of London conferring its Freedom upon some distinguished person.

Chilean citizenship is forfeited on conviction of an infamous offence, bankruptcy, when fraud is proved, or acceptance of office, salary, pension, or distinctions from a foreign Government, without the consent of Congress. The proportion of foreigners in Chile is about 1 to every 35 of the population. The Government of Chile is largely controlled, despite the democratic nature of its constitution, by the owners of the large landed estates. Most of the important naval, military, and civil posts are in the possession of members of their families, but in proportion as trade and manufacture developes in Chile, rich manufacturers and others will exercise enormous influence, and the power of the old aristocracy, which on the whole has been exercised wisely, since the establishment of the Republic, will be shattered, as has been the case in older countries.

Judges in Chile are appointed by the President, and are irremovable, except in case of official misconduct.

Seven judges form the supreme Court which sits at Santiago. In Eight Courts of Appeal which are situated in the various towns and in the Capital of each of the departments into which the provinces are divided, a judge sits, who adjudicates upon all cases, civil and criminal,

which are beyond the jurisdiction of the minor magistrates. The Law of Chile is a modification of the Code Napoleon, and litigants must employ advocates, as it is forbidden to appear in person in the Chilean Courts.

The Roman Catholic Religion is the established form of faith in Chile. Other forms of public worship have been allowed during the past three decades, and there are Protestant churches in Valparaiso, Valdivia, and other centres where foreigners are found. Anglican and Free Church missions are allowed full scope amongst the native Indians despite certain opposition on the part of the Roman Catholic clergy. All instruction to the Indians must be given in Spanish. The Roman Catholic clergy are paid by the State. The maintenance of the Church in Chile costs upwards of £100,000 a year, which sum includes the repair of churches.

Education in Chile, from the primary schools, to the universities, is free, but not compulsory. At present there are about 1,700 schools with 2,800 teachers, 60 per cent. of whom are females, who are engaged in the training of about 200,000 young Chileans, half of whom are girls. Thus it will be seen that the proportion of educated women is large in Chile. Scholars of limited means are provided with books, and other educational materials at the Government's cost. Intermediate schools and colleges exist in all the important centres, and there are two Universities. Besides these institutions, there exists an admirably equipped school of medicine, agricultural and mining colleges, a school of arts, an academy of painting and sculpture, a conservatory of music, deaf and dumb and blind schools, as well as Normal and other educational institutions.

Any Chilean can therefore become a doctor, lawyer, or engineer, without spending one penny himself, and it is therefore no wonder that a large and growing professional class exists in the Chilean towns, and that Chilean doctors are numerous in the important centres of South America.

In addition to the Government schools and colleges,

there are English and German schools in Valparaiso, Valdivia, and other towns, where the children of these nationalities are educated. It is the aim of the Bishop of the Falkland Islands, Dr. Blair, to establish a number of high class English schools in Chile, which is included in his diocese, for the purpose of imparting a typical English public school education, to the children of the English residents in the republic.

Chile is exceptionally well provided with public libraries. It is the duty of the Minister of Public Instruction to provide for the maintenance and improvement of libraries, in each town and growing district. These libraries are well supplied with modern works of reference and research, in all European languages, and are greatly used by the native and foreign population. A system that prevails in Chile, by which the Government maintains in Europe some of the most promising students in the different professions, in order that they may perfect their training, is one that might be copied with advantage by other Governments.

On their return to Chile these students are expected to repay their debt to the Republic, by teaching at the University and State Colleges. A distinguished body of foreign professors, of different subjects, are also employed in the eighty-four Chilean colleges, and there is little doubt that, in the near future, education in its primary grades will be made compulsory as well as free, and the disadvantages of illiteracy removed from the future generations of Chileans.

The salary of the President of Chile is £3,600 per annum. The Ministry consists of five members, each of whom receives £1,500 per annum.

The Chilean police force is efficient, and the prisons are modern and humane. There are ninety-two penal and reformatory establishments in the Republic, which are conducted more on the United States methods that Elmira has familiarised us with, than on English lines. Prisoners who receive long terms of imprisonment, are taught a trade and a considerable amount of furniture,

1875
1876



AVALANCHE SHED TRANS-ANDIAN RAILWAY

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amongst other things, is manufactured and sold, by the State Penitentiaries.

In the first half of the nineteenth century, a convict settlement was formed in Patagonia, but owing partly to a revolt of the convicts, and the discovery of the possibilities of sheep farming in the district, the settlement was abandoned.

Just now it has been purposed to make the island of Juan Fernandez, a place of exile for political offenders. This proposition, however, has evoked such a storm of protest—not from the offenders, for Juan Fernandez is a pleasant enough place—but from naturalists, who declare that the island, where Alexander Selkirk forgot his speech during the years he was marooned there, contains an assortment of rare birds that are hardly to be found and studied elsewhere in the world, and that to turn the island into a convict settlement would mean the extinction or driving away of its wild life, which would be a serious loss to science. Previous convict settlements in Juan Fernandez were discontinued owing to amnesty laws passed years ago.

Taxation in Chile is very low, and only amounts to about 18s. per head of the population. The greater part of the revenue is derived from the export duty on nitrates, the sale of lands in the South, and the profits on the State Railways, the Post Office and the Telegraphs, which are efficient and up to the European standard. There is also a tax on some imports and real estate. Compulsory service prevails in Chile. All male subjects from twenty to forty-five are liable to serve a year with the colours, between their twentieth and twenty-first birthday. Until they arrive at forty-five, they remain in different sections of the reserve. From the above it will be seen that Chile, as regards its constitution, is a thoroughly modern country, and if now and then, somewhere removed from a large town, we hear of a miscarriage of justice, we must remember that even in England, we have had our "Beck case," and that "Justices Justice" is still proverbial.

The Chilean flag, like many things Chilean—though,

perhaps, it were wiser not to say so in Chile—is modelled upon that of France, the lower half being red, and the upper half divided into two unequal strips of blue and white. Upon the blue is shown a five-rayed white star. The national arms comprise a condor, a huemul, or Chilean stag, looking towards a central crown surmounted by three feathers in the national colours.

Chilean local administration, as is generally the case in Latin-American countries, occasionally leaves something to be desired ; and it may be said of Chile generally, that money voted for improvements is not always spent without leakage, upon the object for which it was raised. Mr. Anderson Smith, for example, tells a story very much to the point. His party had to cross the river Maipu by a long, wooden bridge. “ But one half of the bridge has recently been condemned and closed, so that the whole of the movement from either side is along the other half, only wide enough for one coach or waggon at a time. Although closed for months, and money voted to repair it, of course nothing has been done Meantime, a ‘ director,’ is stationed on the bridge to see to the traffic, and prevent the hopeless block that would result from two vehicles meeting in the centre, where neither could pretend to turn. When our carriage has reached more than half-way across, and we are occupied with the brilliant ballancing of a drunken *vaquero*, or cowboy, coming behind at a mad gallop and swaying like a pendulum, at times almost over the parapet of the bridge, a halt is called. The ‘ director’ calmly walks along the broad central wooden partition to inform us that we cannot proceed, a heavy waggon having just entered at the other end. Quite a number of horsemen and horsewomen in gay costumes were in front of us, besides those who followed behind, and yet it never occurred to him that it was his business to prevent the entry of the wagon.”

Here is another bridge story from the same source :—

“ We met the hearty hospitality of a Chilean friend on the way, and in returning forded the river after the native as

guide, having made up our minds that the bridge was not good enough. For this was the spot at which the *mozo*, riding hard for a doctor, arrived, when the horse, seeing no bridge, stopped short, and shot the lad over its head. But its own impetus was too great, and it shot down into the swollen river and was drowned. The good people looked also for the body of the lad, but strange to say he had been thrown over the horse's head on to the part of the bridge remaining, and went stolidly home, his whereabouts not being discovered until some days after, when the river had fallen sufficiently to cross."

CHAPTER XVI

CRIME AND THE SOCIAL EVIL IN CHILE

French Influences on Chile—Coarseness of Speech amongst the Lower Classes—Are the Chilenos Immoral?—Vice in the large Towns—Travellers' Tales—"Painted" Ladies—Illegitimacy—Feudal Customs—The Unmarried Mother in Chile—Polygamous Indians—The Lot of the Unwanted Child—National Nurseries—The Clergy in Chile—The Jesuits—Chile, the Land of Lies—Murders in Chile—Brigandage Outrages after the Civil War—The Chilean Frontier—Absurd Fears—Drunken Vaqueros—Aguardiente or Chilean Brandy—The Main Cause of Crime.

Santiago, the capital of Chile, and the other large towns, are reflections, with the lights and shades intensified, of Paris, so far as the thought, and every day aspirations of the populace are concerned.

The popular literature of Chile is French. The leading papers usually publish translations of French novels, not always of the character one would like our boarding school misses to read, but the Chilena, like her brother, is precocious, and there is a certain coarseness of speech, amongst the lower and poorer middle class, which is frequently the attribute of strong races. Even in the narrow confines of England, it is noticeable that the speech and actions of the men and women, of the "Industrial North," are coarser in every respect than the manners of the people of London, and the South; yet most competent judges are of the opinion that the working classes of the North of England are superior in intellect, and are certainly not inferior in morals to those of the South.

This appears to be the case with the Chilenos. They are frequently reproached with being immoral. In a sense they certainly are, but the vice which exists in the big cities, and which is regulated, as is customary in Latin countries, is neither cloaked with picturesqueness nor hidden with hypocrisy. The attitude of the Chilean towards the social evil is that it is a necessity, a regrettable one, no doubt, but still a necessity, and therefore to be frankly recognised, and neither hidden, nor ignored, nor glorified by a false halo of silly sentiment.

English and American visitors of the superficial order, frequently tell appalling stories of the conditions of the Santiago streets, which according to them, vie with Regent Street at its worst. These stories, though repeated perhaps in good faith, are absolutely false. They originate through a mistake, which when explained is perhaps pardonable, when it is perpetrated by persons who judge the customs of foreign countries by the standard they apply to their own.

In the North of Chile, owing to the heat of the climate, although many women possessing beautiful complexions are frequently seen, the average Chilena is inclined to be somewhat sallow. Consequently, the use of "Poudre de Perle" and toilet rouge is the rule, rather than the exception, amongst all classes; and casual English or American visitors, seeing the streets thronged with ladies, who are obviously addicted to the use of artificial aids to the complexion, imagine that these belong to a class more notorious than respectable, and return home to spread unconscious slanders on the charming daughters of Chile.

True, the illegitimate birth rate is very high. Prior to the passing of the Civil Marriage Law, in 1883, twenty three per cent. of all the children born were illegitimate. The percentage of illegitimate births was much larger in the country than in the towns, as, owing to the money wages being a rare form of payment, the rotos could scarcely ever afford to pay the required fees, and consequently chose their partners for life, without troubling about an expensive ceremony.

Like all feudal lords, many of the hacienos, or estate owners, were gay dogs, and they and the better classes, the clergy not excepted, were responsible for a great deal of this illegitimacy.

Bad as this was, it was not productive of so much evil as similar state of affairs would be in England, as the Chilean is neither a coward nor a hypocrite, and social ostracism is never allotted to the "unmarried mother."

The admixture of Indian blood must also be taken into

consideration. The Indians were polygamists from time immemorial, the Araucanians, despite the efforts of missionaries, are polygamists to this day—and the writing on the slate of ages is not to be wiped out, by a few rules, with the sponge of Christianity. These conditions, combined with climatic influence, and a young, strong, and vigorous population, explains very largely the immorality for which so many travellers freely, and in many cases unjustly, have blamed the Chileans.

Chilean public opinion, it should be noted, would condemn the man who neglected to provide for his illegitimate offspring, and there are many instances of high-minded Chilean ladies adopting the innocent results of their husband's illicit amours.

Amongst the working class and the peasants, should a man have a child other than by the woman he is married to, or is living with—which is rare, for the Chilenos choose their partners when they are extremely youthful—it is customary for him to bring the baby up in his own house.

Thus, outside the large towns, the social evil results in a modification of polygamy, rather than in the appalling suffering and vice that is the fate of its victims in this country.

In cases where "unwanted Children" are not looked after by the man, the State provides in all the large centres "National Nurseries," where mothers may deposit their children without fee or enquiry, in full confidence that they will be nurtured and educated by the Government.

The status of the clergy in Chile, although much is still to be desired, is steadily improving. In the colonial days the bishops were frequently the creatures of the King of Spain, or the Council of the Indies, and the evil system of patronage crept down to the parish priests and curates, who were frequently ignorant, superstitious, and immoral. The great work of the Church was done by the Jesuits who, whatever may have been their political machinations, were learned, upright, self-sacrificing men, of sterling worth and of high moral integrity.

Their example, since their recall in 1854, by President Montt, has had a purifying effect upon the secular clergy, whose conduct has so frequently caused odium to fall on their cloth, in Chile, and in the other Latin republics.

Chile, like South Africa, may be described as the "Land of Lies." Some authors declare that Santiago and Valparaiso are as safe for life and property as London or Paris, while W. Anderson Smith states that "there are more murders in Chile than in the whole of the United States!" This statement, on the face of it, is ridiculous. In 1910 there were 9,000 murders in the United States of America, with a population of 80,000,000. Chile has only 4,000,000 inhabitants.

Traditions, however, are hard to kill. I have met people who expected to see elephants, instead of horses, in Bombay, and who were apprehensive of being pounced upon by tigers when walking in the park at Calcutta.

At one time brigandage prevailed alarmingly on the Araucanian frontier of Chile, and after the Civil War that resulted in Balmaceda's downfall, terrible scenes of murder and pillage took place. Again, seven years ago, after the terrible earthquake at Valparaiso, gangs of ruffians attempted to pillage the ruins, and were only held in check by force of arms.

These events, however, have occurred at abnormal times, and similar instances would occur under similar conditions in any great city in the world. Visitors to Chile hear of them, and imagine that they are of everyday occurrence.

All sorts of stories of violence and bloodshed are circulated, with reference to Valdivia, once the Indian frontier. Murderers, horse thieves, and Indians in war paint lurk behind every bush, whereas, in fact, the principal population consists of peaceful well-to-do Germans and their descendants, rich farmers, and English merchants.

Certainly, on high days and holidays, it is not uncommon for a band of vaqueros or cowboys to "paint the town red" after a debauch, but these men are not thieves, and never interfere with strangers. The occasions for this sort of

thing are saints' days in one of the towns in the plains of Chile—especially when the natives have been drinking *chicha*, a cider-like liquid, though made from the juice of the grape. What follows is sometimes a little unnerving. Round the bodegas, or drinking shops, from the interior of which come uproarious sounds, as of the cult of Bacchus, are lounging groups of picturesquely dressed individuals, wearing large spurs that jingle as they move. From a safe distance, a large crowd is watching the antics of these horsemen, who, just sober enough to remain in the saddle, are endeavouring to ride down any individual on foot, whose appearance takes their fancy. The hunted man runs for his life, the horseman galloping after, in hot pursuit. Hunted dives into a doorway. Drunken hunter, ducking his head, follows, horse and all. A series of crashes announces the break-up of the family furniture, and soon the tail and posterior anatomy of the horse reappear, the animal having to be backed out, as it had no room to turn. Drunk, though they be, and rolling from side to side on the saddle, these rascals appear to retain perfect control over their animals; and the entertainment seems to be taken good-temperedly all round. The native probably knows that it is safer and cheaper, in the end, to humour these sons of Bacchus.

In spite of the fact that the climate of Chile, though, of course, varying immensely between north and south, is on the whole healthy, the death rate, at about seventy per thousand in Santiago and Valparaiso, the largest cities, is certainly abnormally high. This seeming contradiction is not very easily explainable, but it appears to be due to a combination of physical and moral causes. Lack of sanitation, and the generally dirty condition in which the poorer classes live, accounts for much of it, and especially for a high rate of infantile mortality. Other causes are a certain looseness in sexual matters, and a heavy consumption of *aguardiente*. Let it not be supposed however, that the country is necessarily unhealthy to foreigners! Any European who chooses to live there cleanly and

soberly will probably enjoy excellent health, and cheat posterity for at least the usual number of years.

One result of Chile's high death-rate, and of her natural anxiety to increase her population, is clemency in remitting the death sentence. On that point Mr. Anderson Smith makes some caustic remarks, which, one supposes, need not be taken quite *au pied de la lettre*. "There have been shown us the photographs of eleven brigands in prison here (Coronal) who are to be shot. One of them coolly confessed to twenty-eight murders; one woman confessed to three, including the Judge of Letters of Santa Juana; indeed, all have confessed, so there is no question of their guilt. But also there is no question in the mind of the public that they will all escape! In a country that has not advanced in population *de facto* in twenty years, they cannot afford to lose such valuable and dashing citizens. Probably the hero of twenty-eight will stand for the Presidency!"

While speaking of Chile's death rate, another aspect of the matter may fitly be mentioned here.

The ideas of the Chilenos concerning the dead, especially concerning dead children, appeal rather to the Celtic than to the Saxon mind. It is no very uncommon sight, in rural Chile, to see, followed by two or three of his women-folk, in black mantas, a man trudging towards the cemetery, with a small coffin tucked under one arm. None of the party display any signs of deep emotion. Why? Because they cared nothing for the child? Not necessarily. The more likely reason is a less prosaic one. Every child, upon death, passes to heaven, as an *angelito*, there to live a happy life, and to assist in working out the salvation of the parents. A Chilean woman had lost seven children. "Two more," she was heard to say; "Two more *angelitos*, and my place is safe in heaven." Nine *angelitos*, and paradise is your's for certain. That is why the death of a child is followed by a *velorio*, a merry wake, at which the assistants, seated around the tiny corpse set about with lights and flowers, eat much, and drink more, to the

accompaniment of the joyous strains of the mandoline. A European lady in Chile was once passing the house of her washerwoman, when she heard a crowd within singing and carousing. "Look in, señorita," said the maid who was with her, "'Tis an angelito's wake." The lady looked. Hanging from the wall above the bed was the corpse of a three year old child, dressed in white, and wreathed with flowers. The company, by means of general merriment and singing, were cheering the infant soul on its flight from earth, at the same time comforting the weeping mother with assurances that the *nino* was now "a little lamp of light,"* that, when the mother's time came, would beacon her in turn to heaven. One is tempted to wonder whether this custom—a tenacious one among the people—can have any effect upon the rate of infant mortality, which is appallingly high in Chile. One supposes, however, that the tragedies are due mainly to the dirty condition, and to the want of sanitation, that prevails in the slums of such cities as Santiago. Sometimes the *velorio* takes place en plein air, the mortal remains of the angelito, lit by two candles in bottles, being placed beneath a thatched roof supported on four poles.

The overwhelming majority of crime amongst the Chilenos is caused through drunkenness. The love of lower orders for *Aguardiente* is the great national curse, and, under its baneful influence, occur stabbing affrays that frequently end fatally.

The Chileno, however, is not of vengeful nature. This side of his character he appears to have inherited from his Indian ancestry rather than from the Spanish, for the Indians of South America, even the Araucanians, are strangely forgiving when once the actual war or quarrel is at an end.

The drink question is now occupying the attention of the Government, and it is hoped that legislation, along with the spread of education, will considerably reduce drunkenness and crimes of violence amongst the Chilenos.

* "Over the Andes," May Crommelin.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE RAILROADS OF CHILE

Chile, the Railway Pioneer of South America—Government Railways—Development Retarded by Topographical Difficulties—The Lines of the North—Majority of Chilean Lines State Owned—The Impetus to Trade—State Owned Railways a Boon to Chile—Annual Profit 3 per cent.—Travelling cheaper than in U.S.A.—The Arica and Puerto Montt Line—British Firms £4,000,000 Contract—Government Engineering Works—The Transandine Lines—Engineering Triumphs—International Lines—New York to Santiago by Rail—The Arica and La Paz Line—The "Times," on the Transandine Railway and the Future of Chile—Railways a Factor for Peace in South America—The Contemplated Lines—Commercial and Political Federation of South American Republics a Possibility of the Near Future.

The first railroad in all South America was opened for public traffic in Chile on July 29th, 1851; when the silver mining district of Copiaco was connected with Caldera, a seaport of the province of Atacama.

The engineer of this, and of most of the subsequent railway lines constructed, during the terms of office of that progressive President, Don Emanuel Montt, was William Wheelwright, of Boston, who may be described as the Stevenson of Chile.

The capital for the first Government lines, in Chile, was raised by means of a loan of £1,200,000, which was floated in London. Since then probably £20,000,000 has been expended in railway construction. Compared with the developments of railways in the neighbouring republic of Argentine, where the railway mileage has increased from 4,000 miles in 1887, to 13,250 miles in 1908, Chilean railway development appears to be of slow progress.

The extension of the railway system in Chile has, however, been greatly retarded by the topographical conditions of the country. Over the vast, flat plains of Argentina, railway construction is a simple matter, and has been described as laying down the sleepers and placing rails upon them.

In northern Chile, however, railways have had to be constructed through waterless and treeless deserts. The undulations of the ground, the swamps and forests of the south, and the numerous rivers, have presented innumerable obstacles, which have only been overcome by the most arduous labour, and by an enormous expenditure of capital.

In the Nitrate regions of the north some railroads are owned by various companies, that have obtained permission to connect their mineral properties with the various seaports. There are also several short lines owned by coal and copper mining companies which usually connect their works with the Government lines. The State owns 1,801 miles of railway in Chile, valued at £14,000,000, and the balance of 1,583 miles of line are privately owned.

The impetus which railways are giving to trade and industry is enormous. Immense industries, in Chile, are to-day ready to spring into being, directly the railway reaches their districts and renders easy and possible rapid and cheap access, to the various markets which await them.

The Chilean Government consider the building and owning of railways as a legitimate function of the legislature. The extension of the railway system has absorbed a great amount of the national income, and the Chilean State railways may be said to have been constructed out of the revenue derived from nitrate royalties. The State-owned railways are an enormous benefit to the Chilean people, as, apart from cheap travel and transit, not to mention the advantage the Government would have in the event of it being necessary to mobilise the army, the Government railroads show an annual profit of over three per cent. upon the capital sunk in their construction.

Yet railway travelling in Chile, owing to the absence of vested interests, and despite the enormous engineering difficulties the topography of the country presents, is cheaper than in the United States.

Within a few years Chile will possess a railway which will link up Arica in the North with Puerto Montt in the

South, a distance of 2,138 miles. Branches will connect this line with the towns en route, so that the total mileage will be probably nearer 5,000 than 4,000 miles. £4,000,000 was voted in 1910 for railway construction, and it is gratifying to know that a British firm has obtained this important contract.

Magnificent Government engineering works exist at Santiago, where numerous Clyde-born engineers hold important positions. Locomotives, equal to those constructed at Crewe, are turned out under the superintendence of British foremen, and carriages and Pullman cars, of similar standard to those of England and the United States, are manufactured by Chilean workmen, out of Chilean materials.

As an instance of the great development of railway transit, in Chile, it may be mentioned that the Government Central Railway carries annually upwards of 3,000,000 tons of freight and 7,000,000 passengers.

One of the most important privately owned railways in Chile is the Arauco Railway, owned by the Arauco Company, Ltd. It, like all the State railways, is broad gauge; it connects Concepcion to Curanilahue, and has a branch to Arauco. This line is one of the most important in Chile, as it is now being connected with the Government longitudinal line, so that, in the event of the coast being blockaded by a hostile fleet, coal would be supplied to the Government through this line from the Arauco Collieries.

The building of this line was authorized by the Government in 1884. It cost £650,000 to build and equip. The railway runs through eleven important stations—Concepcion, San Pedro, La Posada, Coronel, Lota, Saraquete, Carampangue, Peumo, Colico, Curanilahue, and Arauco, on the branch line.

The gauge is 5ft. 6ins., which is the standard throughout Chile, and which enables freight to be carried at an extremely low rate. The bridges of this line are some of the best examples of railway engineering in Chile. The iron bridge over the Bio-Bio river is 1,876 feet, and there are

eleven other bridges, mostly constructed of wood, the erection of which was no easy matter owing to the physical aspect of the country and the prevalence of floods.

There was trouble at one time with the Chilean Government, owing to the State not fulfilling its obligation to pay the railway company an annual guarantee. At first the company was in financial difficulties.

The problem of finding a market on the coast for the Company's coal was one of considerable difficulty, as coal from England and Australia was imported at very low freights, and whilst the price of imported coal is low it is impossible for native coal to compete. These early troubles, however, thanks to good management, have been dispelled, and the Arauco Company to-day, of which Sir Robert Harvey is the Chairman, is in a most flourishing condition, and its tendency is to continue in its path of steady improvement.

The Arauco Company was reconstructed in 1903, under the directorships of Sir Robert Harvey, M.C.I.E., B. E. Greenwell, Esq., John J. Smith, Esq., and W. M. Shield, Esq., M.C.I.E., with James Edwards, Esq., as Secretary. Thanks to their vigorous policy the Company's returns for the year ending December 31st, 1910, show that the gross railway traffic for the year amounted to £110,212 an increase of £6,194 over the year 1909, in which the receipts were £104,018. The net receipts were £54,549 7s. 8d., as against £43,714 8s. 1d. in 1909.

The output of coal has been 142,173 tons, and the sales, 135,792 tons as compared with output 114,791 tons and sales 129,579 tons in 1909.

The Transandine railways, are amongst the most wonderful triumphs of engineering skill in the world.

Railways ascend precipitous mountains, climb zig-zag over apparently unsurmountable eminences, creep along by the side of ravines, and enter tunnels which, in the savage scenery of the Andes, suggest the entrance to Hades. The trains appear to crawl like flies over the stupendous rocks and passes, and passengers who gaze out,

grow sick and dizzy at the prospects of ravine and mountain the journey affords.

Owing to its geographical position, numerous international lines connect the neighbouring republics with Chile. It is now, for instance, only a matter of a few months, before New York and Santiago will be linked together by an international railway running through numerous republics in North, Central and South America.

Another of these international lines, the railway from Arica to La Paz in Bolivia, which is being made by the Chilean Government in virtue of a treaty of peace and amity with the Bolivian Republic, will shortly be opened. The Arica and La Paz Railway is being constructed by the British firm, Sir John Jackson, Ltd., for the sum of £2,750,000, and will enable the journey between La Paz and the Pacific coast to be made in twelve hours.

The Transandine railway over the Uspallata Pass, which connects Argentina with Chile, was opened on the 27th of November, 1909. Of the opening of this railway, the *Times* wrote as follows:—

“The completion of the line will mark the beginning of a new era in the social and commercial history of the Latin-American race. The prosperity and progress of individual nations of the race have been very great in recent years. But the chief essential to the prosperity of the whole continent is still lacking, and without the prosperity of the whole continent, the prosperity of individual states, must be, to a certain extent, precarious. South America is still without means of intercourse such as the exigencies of modern commerce demand.”

That “the individual withers and the world grows more and more” is a truism that holds good with regard to Republics, as well as persons. Chile recognised this, when treaties were entered into with Argentina and the other republics, allowing her mountain frontier to be penetrated by railways. The new era for peace, amity and progress commenced with the establishment of rapid means of communication.

There is another Transandine railway at Antrico, which is rapidly approaching completion, and there are three others in contemplation, which will have the effect of giving to the products of Argentina a shorter and cheaper means of access to the Pacific ports than they now have to the Atlantic.

These railways are the one from Salta to Mejillones and Antofagasta, another from Tinogasta to Copiapo and Caldera, and a third from Temuco to join with the Buenos Ayres Great Southern lines, which will make it possible to travel without changing from Santiago to the second port of the Argentine, Bahia Blanca.

A glance at the map (frontispiece) shows the enormous importance of these Transandine lines, the first of which between Antofagasta and Bolivia, a distance of 1,055 miles, passes over higher mountains than any other railway in the world, and may be said to have made the first important step towards the commercial and social union between the South American Republics. Contrary to popular opinion in this country, the tendencies of Chile and her sister republics is towards peace and stability, founded upon mutual interest and trade. As the years roll on, these young countries will become less bellicose, although some of them, Chile in particular, are strong and ready to reply to aggression or to resist oppression.

So marked is this tendency that many competent observers are of opinion that a commercial and political union of Latin-America will be one of the next great steps towards the realization of the poet's dream of "The Parliament of Man and the Federation of the World" in the not very far distant future.



BLASTING A TEST HOLE, NITRATE FIELDS

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CHAPTER XIX

CHILE'S UNDEVELOPED FISHERIES

Chile's Enormous Resources—The Harvest of the Sea Washed—Lack of Fishing Boats and Canning Factories on the Coast—Sardines and Anchovies Wasting in Thousands of Tons—Shoals of Mackerel—Primitive but remunerative Fishing Methods—Transport and Factories Wanted—Oysters and Mussels—The Whale Fisheries of Talcahuano—Perch and Trout—Flowers made from Fish Scales—In Demand for Funerals—The Future Development of Chilean Fisheries.

One of Chile's chief charms, in the opinion of that careful Seventeenth Century observer, Father Ovales, was the profusion of fish, along her 2,500 miles of coast line and in her hundred rivers, that rendered Lent "the most agreeable season of the year."

The good Jesuit underrated, rather than exaggerated, Chile's enormous piscine resources, which, as Domine Sampson would have proclaimed, are prodigious!

It seems extraordinary, but it is nevertheless true, that owing to the lack of a modern fishing fleet, and curing and canning establishments, thousands of tons of sardines and anchovies, equal in every respect to those of Mediterranean, are annually allowed to rot on enormous stretches of coast.

Every winter, vast shoals of these delicate fish invade the coast between Talcahuano, the finest harbour on the coast, and the Island of Chiloe, and probably much further south, for a distance of more than five hundred miles, and are thrown by the waves in myriads on the beach, to be preyed upon by incredible numbers of seabirds.

The sardines and anchovies are apparently pursued by great shoals of mackerel, and in the Bay of Arauco, the Newcastle of Chile, the extraordinary multitude of fish is a positive evil, as they are cast gleaming and wriggling

upon the sands, at every high tide, in such incredible quantities, that the birds and population are unable to cope with them, with the result that the air for miles is at times polluted with the smell of their decaying bodies.

No one ever fishes for sardines and anchovies on this coast ; the men and boys merely scoop them up in buckets, as the waves wash them ashore ! Circular stone walls or empty barrels are erected or placed on the shore at low water. After every high tide they are filled with fish !

Mackerel are caught by the thousand in the following primitive manner. A large bunch of hooks is tied to a weight, at the end of a long cord. This is thrown out to sea and dragged ashore, and the fisherman usually curses, if he has failed to secure, in this simple fashion, three or four large mackerel.

A boy, armed in this fashion, thinks nothing of catching from fifty to eighty magnificent mackerel, in an hour.

Strange as it may seem, great quantities of tinned fish are imported into Chile, but that the "England of the Pacific" will eventually develop important fisheries, is merely a matter of time.

Rapid transport to the large towns is a necessity, and it was the lack of fast steamers to convey the fish to Concepcion, Valparaiso and Iquique, that caused the experiment of sending out Grimsby fishermen, a few years ago, to end in failure.

Oysters in the Valdivia district exist in similar profusion, and a large trade is done in exporting the famous Chilean mussel, the choros, which is between an oyster and a mussel in flavour. Valparaiso alone pays about £200 a week for mussels, to Corral, the centre of the trade.

Mussels are worth about 15s. a barrel. They are dragged up in great bunches from their haunts, in the rocks, by means of poles, armed with several curved iron prongs. A man stands in a boat, thrusts these poles to the bottom, twists them round, and drags up great clusters of mussels.

A considerable whaling industry is springing up at Talcahuano. Every season, several ships leave for the

frozen southern seas, and bring back quantities of oil and whalebone.

Most English common fishes teem in the Western Pacific, as well as many species unknown to us, but valuable and delicious as items of diet. Perch and trout swarm in most of the rivers, and afford excellent sport. In the neighbourhood of mines, a considerable destruction of these fish has unfortunately taken place, through the unsportsmanlike Chileno preferring to dynamite the stream, rather than to fish in the orthodox manner.

A pretty though trifling industry, that is peculiar to Chile, has grown up in Valdivia, in the manufacture of artificial flowers, from fish scales.

They are all made by women, and are hawked in the principal streets and resorts, and are really very beautiful. All the colours of natural flowers are counterfeited by the irridiscent scales of the corbina, and I have seen birds and flowers, apparently inlaid on furniture and lacquered, composed of fish scales, that bore all the appearance of mother of pearl.

The Chilena is nothing if not artistic, and quite a number of the well educated though poor women, who abound in Chile, where it is uncommon to meet anyone, who is not either illiterate or well educated, are able to make a livelihood in this curious manner.

For funerals these "fish scale flowers" are in considerable demand, and, to suit the solemnity of the occasion, the flowers are made of the macerated coating of the choros, or large mussel, which, like our variety, is jet black, but irridiscent.

The idea of black flowers may seem strange, or even ludicrous to English ideas, but the poorer Chileans are great admirers of uniformity. The few negroes who are residents in Chile, for instance, can obtain regular employment at high wages as undertaker's "mutes," as, in the opinion of the Chilenos, their sable complexions harmonise so beautifully with the funeral pomp and trappings of woe.

Up to now, little serious attention has been paid to

development of the fisheries, although the sea abounds with fish.

Mining and agriculture have diverted men's minds from the harvest of the seas; yet when the population increases, as it is bound to do, there is every prospect of large and productive fisheries, canning, and curing establishments, springing into being all along that great stretch of coast line, from torrid Arica to frozen Cape Horn.



LOADING THE ROUGH NITRATE INTO CARTS



TIPPING NITRATE INTO CRUSHER-HOPPER

CHAPTER XX

CHILE'S CENTRAL VALLEY AND FOREST LANDS

The Central Valley—Its Future—The Unexplored Forest of the South—The Alerce Tree, a Rival to the Giant Trees of California—A Tree 2,000 Years Old—The Monkey Puzzle Tree—The Timber of the Andes and Cape Horn—English Common Trees in Chile—Destruction of Forests—Dangers to the Climate—Creepers and Conifers—Government Anxiety for the Forests—Tree Planting—The Eucalyptus—Rapid Growth of Timber—Lost Mines in the Forest of the South—Opportunities for Pulp Manufacturing.

Between the arid waters of the north—arid, indeed, yet extremely valuable, by reason of the nitrate deposits—and the watery, densely wooded south, lies the real Chile, the vast and fertile central plain, extending from Valparaiso to Concepcion, that, when it is exploited, as it should be, and is destined to be, will make a vast addition to the revenues and prosperity of the Republic. As one passes down it, on a Spring morning—a September morning in Chile—among the vineyards and the fresh bloom of the myriad peach-trees that encircle Santiago, we realise at once the possibilities of the country, that here, as elsewhere, reminds us of the fair fields of France. We pass cottages of the peons, still rough and primitive, as in the earlier days; we see the men ploughing with archaic ploughs, while the crows, looking on with intense interest, speculate as to what the ploughshare may turn up; we see hundreds of cattle feeding in the fat pastures watered by the milk-white, wide, shallow rivers that have their homes away there in the great Andes.

Between Curico and Talca the climate and country seem to change somewhat, as we pass from the vinelands to the wheat-fields. The handsome town of Talca itself, with its fine plaza, and its alameda adorned with a gilt figure of victory, brought from Lima after the Peruvian war, is girt round with wheat farms. Hereabouts we notice that the native women

are rather different in type from their northern sisters. They have large black eyes, and long dark hair—suggestive of the eyes and hair of the Araucanian Indians, whose ancient frontier we are approaching. Here is Chillan, a town that, despite its tragic history of fire and sword, is to-day one of the most prosperous in Chile, the centre of a thriving agricultural population. Later, we rise upon a great table-land, on which close tufted grass takes the place of the brushwood through which we have been passing; the coast chain has vanished; the Cordilleras have sunk into insignificance. We drop down to the famous Bio-Bio river, which, until 1884, marked the boundary of Indian Araucania. In the Spanish days these lands were the scene of desperate fighting on the part of a nation struggling for its life. Hereabouts the newness of the towns, the blackened stumps of newly cleared forests, all suggest the truth—that we are passing towards virgin-lands. At the town of Temuco the great Chilean central valley may be said to end. It is land of fair promise; and Chile will do wisely to see that this promise is soon fulfilled. As Mr. Anderson Smith well puts it: "From the orange groves and vineyards of Santiago to the apple orchards and wheat-lands of the Temuco district, this great valley ought to be a garden, and Chile has not commenced her duty to her patrimony until she has made it one. This would be a more secure source of wealth and prosperity than her nitrate fields or guano islands, and altogether provide a more wholesome element in the national life. But the owners still play the game of dog in the manger, and will neither work it themselves nor allow others to do so."

Nature that has been so bountiful to the "England of the Pacific" has covered an enormous portion of her area with a magnificent forest, containing timber of practically every description. South of Valdivia an almost unexplored forest exists. Great tracts of forest land occur in the Cordilleras, and the Island of Chiloe may be described as one vast wood.

The giant Redwood trees, of the Yosemite Valley, find their rivals in the Alerce tree, *Fitzroya Patagonica*, which grows in the southern forests. Trees of this species, fifteen feet in diameter at the base, and 240 feet high, are quite common. One tree the cutting down of which is prohibited by Government, is said to be over 2,000 years old. The timber of the Alerce is excellent for all purposes.

Pines, of various species, grow on the mountains, in some instances even beyond the snow line. The Pehuen, or *Araucania imbricata*, grows all over the south, and frequently attains the height of 100 feet. Its seeds were greatly appreciated by the Indians. This tree is familiar enough in England, though it seldom bears seeds, and is known as the "monkey puzzle tree." It is now becoming somewhat rare in Chile.

South of Valdivia, and on the lower slopes of the Andes, the valuable Mahin tree flourishes in vast numbers. As far south as Cape Horn, the Cipres grows, and in these little known regions there are numerous varieties of conifers, valuable both for timber and pulp.

Poplars grow all over Chile, except, of course, in the deserts of the north. The wood is used for furniture and doors, and is exceedingly cheap. Willows of different varieties abound in the neighbourhood of water, and planes, ash trees, hawthorns, laburnums and all the common English forest trees have been introduced in the south, mainly by German colonists, to take the place of the giants they have cut down or burnt. All grow with great rapidity.

Unfortunately, the destruction of forests in Chile is taking place with recklessness, recalling that which has characterised similar proceedings in the United States and other countries. The casual observer, when he surveys the rich arable lands around Valparaiso and Santiago, stretching in unbroken vistas in every direction, would be amazed to learn that Valparaiso, a few centuries ago, was selected as a port by the Conquistadores, on account of its woods, which were suitable for shipbuilding.

Chile 7

Within the memory of living man, the great forest of the South has been cleared back for more than fifty miles from the Bio-Bio river, and in proportion as new districts are opened up, by the ever advancing railroads, the destruction of forests, to give place to grazing and agricultural land, will go on apace.

The southern forests are extremely difficult to penetrate, on account of the dense accumulations of slushy peat, below the trees, in which creepers and brambles grow in wild profusion. Within recent years people have been actually lost in the peaty mud beneath the trees, which is prevented from drying by the dense leavage above, and by the considerable rainfall.

Far South, the Antarctic Beach defies the cold in almost impenetrable forests; and bushes of the wild currant species thrive apace. Further North, the Colihue bamboo, which grows from 25 to 27 feet in height, and parasitic creepers, especially the beautiful one known by the poetic name of "angel's hair," hang from the interlacing branches like threads of lace, and render the woods almost impassable.

The Coniferous trees have probably suffered more than any other kind, owing to their wholesale destruction by the Indians, who, in the days when a "plank" currency prevailed in Valdivia, cut down all the trees that grew in such positions that they could be floated down rivers and conveyed to Valdivia, there to be exchanged for native requirements.

In spite of the vast space of forest land that still exists in Chile, uneasiness is already felt in Government circles, as to the constant destruction of the forests. It is now generally recognised that, unless the trees that overshadow the sources of the rivers of the South are preserved, and a proportion left uncut in other localities, the gradual drying up of the rivers is to be feared. Legislation to protect certain wooded districts from destruction, and to replant others with trees, is almost certain to come in Chile before many years have elapsed.

The experiments in tree planting that have taken place

are most encouraging. The Eucalyptus was introduced some years ago, and is extensively grown, until the cold regions of the far South are reached.

Oaks, chestnuts, walnuts, pines, and, in short, all introduced trees grow with double the rapidity they do in Europe.

Conifers that have been planted for less than twenty years in the neighbourhood of Concepcion appear full grown, and many of the old Spanish mines in the South are over-grown by giant trees, apparently of hoary antiquity, although they cannot be more than three centuries old.

It is more than probable that the vast Southern forests are largely of modern growth, and that the trees rapidly conquered the clearings, when the indomitable Araucanians drove the Spaniards across the Bio-Bio river, and the settlements and mines of the South became but memories.

Should this be correct, it only exemplifies the vast possibilities of this region of Chile, with regard to pulping for paper and the lumber industry.

Nowhere, in temperate climes, does timber grow so fast; and it is obvious that, if systematic and scientific tree planting were adopted, a forest would grow up on the cleared districts, and be ready for the axe, before the confines could be exploited, despite even the rapidity of modern methods of clearing.

CHAPTER XXI

THE FAUNA OF CHILE

Wild Animals Rare—The Puma or Chilean Lion—Don Roland Evans' Adventure—Friendliness of the Puma towards Man—The Silver Fox—Deer—Snakes, Frogs and Toads—Rats and Vampires—Seals, Sea-lions, and Gigantic Sea Elephants—Bird Life in the Forests—The Condor—The Chuca Birds—Curious Superstition—Insect Life—Brilliant Coloured Wasps, Spiders and Centipedes—The Locust Peril—Chile's Attractions to the Naturalist and Tourist.

Although Chile comprises every description of climate, from the tropics, to the frozen regions of the South, the diversity of wild animal life is by no means as large as one would expect.

The towering Andes have apparently proved a bar to the jaguars, and the only really dangerous animal, that is found in Chile, is the puma, or, as it is commonly termed, the Chilean lion. The puma is frequently found in the Andes, to an elevation of 8,000 feet or more, where it preys upon the guanaco, wild llama and deer; but it seldom attacks man. It also inhabits the forests of the South, and, when near settled regions, inflicts considerable damage upon the flocks and herds. Ovalles mentions this 'small lion,' and its destructiveness to sheep and cattle, but doubts if it would ever attack man, of its own volition. As a matter of fact, there appears to be quite a consensus of opinion to show that the puma is rather disposed to be friendly than otherwise. Stories of travellers being followed by playful pumas, with mere frolicsome intentions, are numerous, and a friend of the author's, Don Roberto Roland Evans, vouches for the accuracy of the following anecdote.

Soon after the Civil War of 1891, Don Evans was prospecting in the Andes. One night he lay down to sleep by his camp fire. Towards morning, he felt an intolerable weight upon his chest, and, upon opening his eyes, was alarmed to discover that a large puma was lying across

him, purring contentedly, like a great cat. The animal's eyes shone like green motor lamps, but he seemed to have no purpose but to rest in the warmth.

Señor Evans realised that to attempt to reach his gun or call out, would probably be fatal, so he had the presence of mind to stroke the puma's neck, and pat it gently, while he said, "puss! poor puss!"

The puma showed his appreciation of this treatment, by purring louder, and finally, as the morning dawned, the animal stretched itself, got off its bed, sat up, and washed itself like a cat. Señor Evans arose and took a partridge, he had shot the previous day, that was hanging in the tent, and flung it to the puma, who devoured it with relish, and leisurely completed his toilet before finally trotting off.

Two mornings afterwards the puma reappeared, and received another partridge, but he never again attempted to share his host's bed! That is only one of the stories quotable, many of which are well authenticated, of the friendly disposition of the puma towards man.

The puma generally, however, here, as elsewhere in America, apart from such charming specimens as that mentioned above, is a subtle, fawning, cowardly brute, who loves to slay by guile rather than by force. The natives used to hunt him with dogs trained for the purpose. When brought to bay, he will defend himself ferociously, with his back up against a tree or a rock, while the hunter endeavours to secure him by slipping a noose over his head. When that manœuvre is successful the animal breaks out into furious roaring, and, says Molina, "sheds a torrent of tears." He is a terrible slayer of cattle, particularly of horses, who, however, when in a herd, defend themselves fairly successfully by standing in a circle—back heels outward—around their foals, and lashing out furiously. The cattle adopt the same method of defence for themselves and their young, except that they offer to the foe, horns, instead of heels. It is said that the Chilean donkeys are the cleverest of all beasts at escaping the puma. Should

their heels fail, and the puma spring upon their backs, they will get rid of him by rolling over, or by dashing themselves at full speed against a tree, holding their heads down, so as not to break their necks. Thus Molina; but the reader is quite free to disbelieve this legend, should it overtax his credulity.

In Patagonia, a small silver fox abounds, as well as weasels, polecats, chinchillas, and other fur bearing animals. Two kinds of deer, the pudu, and huemul, are found on the plains, and the somewhat dangerous experiment of introducing rabbits and hares has recently been made.

On the solitary wastes of the Andes, neither animal nor bird life is abundant. The largest quadruped is the guanaco, a species of llama, though with shorter wool. Being exactly the same colour as the shingle, it is extremely difficult to detect, as it feeds or glides, shadow-like about the rocks, occasionally stretching out its long neck to see that nothing dangerous is approaching. When frightened they will gallop up the hills at a most tremendous speed. The puma is also found in the Andes, though not usually at a height greater than 6,000 to 7,000 feet. The Indians say that the slit or torn ears of the mules and horses in the higher region, are due to the attacks of pumas.

Eleven different species of serpent are found in Chile, none of which are poisonous. Frogs and toads of enormous size abound in the swampy forests of Valdivia, and perform a most useful part in keeping down insect life. Bats of many varieties, and in the North small vampires, make the forests their habitat, and on the rocky islands of the South, seals, sea-lions and sea elephants, which are frequently twenty feet in length, exist in incredible numbers.

Graphic and very naive is Molina's description of another Chilean animal, the skunk, or *Chinghui*. "The urine of the *chinghui* is not, as is generally supposed, fetid, but the odour, so disgusting to every other animal, proceeds from a greenish oil contained in a vessel placed, as in the pole-cat, near the anus. When the animal is attacked, it elevates its posteriors, and scatters this loathsome liquid



THE SHIPPING OF THE ORE



A DETAIL OF THE CAMP

1874

upon its assailant. Nothing can equal the offensiveness of its smell ; it penetrates everywhere, and may be perceived at a great distance. Garments that are infected with it cannot be worn for a long time, and not until repeated washings, and the dogs after having been engaged with the *chinghui*, run to the water, roll themselves in the mud, howl as if they were mad, and will eat nothing as long as the smell continues about them. The *chinghui*, when attacked, never makes use of its teeth or claws, but relies entirely upon this singular mode of defence. It appears to be attached to the society of men, and approaches them without the least apprehension, boldly enters the country house to search for eggs, and passes fearlessly through the midst of the dogs, who instead of attacking him generally fly at his approach. The husbandmen are averse to shooting this animal, on such occasions, lest, should they fail of killing it outright, they should be annoyed by its nauseous stench. In order to free themselves from this unwelcome visitor, they have recourse to another method, which is attended with less risk. Some of the company begin by caressing it, until an opportunity offers for one of them to seize it by the tail, and hold it suspended. In this position, the muscles becoming contracted, the animal is unable to eject the fluid, and is dispatched with safety." One wonders whether the task of "caressing it" is left to the ladies of the family?

Mr. Gosse, the naturalist to Mr. Fitzgerald's expedition, writing in "The Highest Andes" tells a good skunk story.

"In a field near the house there was a stunted prickly tree, where a great many small birds used to roost, and often I found a heap of feathers in the morning underneath it. I couldn't think what creature it could be that fed on the birds, so one evening I set a gin baited with a dead bird. Early next morning, I went to make my round of the traps, but when I was quite one hundred yards from this trap, I suddenly became aware of the most disgusting smell imaginable. This got worse and worse, until I really felt quite ill ; so I made a detour and got

on the windward side of the trap, and on approaching found a dark fluffy animal with a head very much like that of a small pig, caught by one of its legs. Then it suddenly occurred to me that this, of course, was a skunk. Contrary to my rule I had come without my gun, and it wasn't safe to get too near the animal if I wanted to go near a human habitation for some weeks, so I returned to the house for a gun. Just at the moment I was going to shoot, the bull-terrier, who had followed me without my noticing her, rushed at the skunk, and killed it, and then returned to me very pleased with herself. But when she was just going to jump up at me, I got a whiff of the choking smell of the skunk, which had got on to the dog, and I had to drive her out of range with stones. I was alarmed to see her galloping for home. I followed, but before I got there I saw her reappear at the gate in a tremendous hurry, followed by a regular storm of sticks and stones. We couldn't let her come near the house for a week after I did not try trapping any more skunks after that.

Among the birds of Chile the first place must be given to the condor, who, as the symbol of strength, figures in the national arms. One ventures to doubt whether he deserves the honour. The great, black-bodied, white-ruffled, bare-headed bird, whom the traveller in the high Andes may see sitting dejectedly upon a peak, or soaring through the blue in search of what *his* eyes alone can discover, is not an attractive national asset, though it must in fairness be admitted that he has his uses as a national scavenger. Occasionally the less adventurous traveller in Chile may come upon a living condor, a captured beast, with one wing cut, solemnly keeping guard upon the ridge of a roof, stolidly sunning itself, and blinking occasionally towards the distant Andes, among whose mighty peaks, before the *vaguero's* lasso put an end to his liberty, those great wings, ten feet from tip to tip, would carry him with a whirr that tells of enormous strength. He may also be seen in captivity in the *Quinte Normal*, or zoological gardens at Santiago. But, loathsome, in a sense though he be, the con-

dor, the largest flying creature in the world, is a majestic bird, when, in search of prey, he sails out through the blue. Standing upon the plain, you see him floating, a speck in the sky. Gradually he drops, to feast upon a carcass or other carrion that his keen eyes have discerned. Sometimes he will attack a flock of sheep, or of goats, or if he is not alone, will fall upon a calf that has become separated from the cows. In an instant, the great bird, with wings extended, swoops down upon the quivering animal; the great beak tears out its eyes; a moment later the body is in pieces.

Very curious are some of the devices, originally made use of by the natives, for catching condors. The hunter, having covered himself with the skin of a newly slain ox, would lie on his back on the ground, while his companion would hide himself not far away. Down would swoop the condor, to feast upon the carcass; but directly the claws touched the body, they were seized, from within the ox-skin, by strong gloved hands, that held the bird a prisoner. Then the partner would break cover, and slay the captive with what Chaucer would have called "a yerde smerck" from a club. Another plan was to form a small enclosure with palisades, within which was placed the carcass of a dead animal. The condor, whose powers of sight and smell are intensely acute, soon discovers the carcass, and proceeds to gorge himself to such an extent that he can neither leave the enclosure with any speed, nor, in that narrow space, successfully defend himself against native clubs and arrows. The bird, however, possesses extraordinary strength of wing, and when once he is in the air, even though gorged, can fly with great swiftness. (Molina).

Condors have been seen feeding upon dead seals far down the Chilean coast, which proves that the natives are wrong in supposing that the bird can live only in high altitudes.

In the Chacao sound, and in many other *canales* of Southern Chile, may be seen long flights of the great fish-eating pelicans drawn here from further north by

the abundance of food in these seas, and perhaps, too, by the comparative absence of "competition," to acquire it. Unwieldy, dirty creatures that they are, mankind leaves them pretty much alone, with the result that they prosper and wax fat. When a shoal of sardines is seen shimmering in one of the bays, these clumsy birds come splashing, in long lines, across the water, their movements contrasting strongly with the graceful evolutions of the terns, skimming and circling above the waves. Many cormorants, too, of the all-black, and the white-breasted variety, gorge themselves here with fish. The penguin is by no means uncommon.

Molina says that the inhabitants derive the name of the country from birds of the thrush kind, very common everywhere, whose note has some resemblance to the word Chile.

This thrush is probably the little fat, yellow, zolzal thrush, one of the commonest birds in Chile, in spite of the fact that its delicate flesh makes it much sought after as a delicacy by the natives.

In the sombre though beautiful forests, many kinds of parrots and wild pigeons flit through the trees. Humming birds flash like animated jewels from flower to flower, and there are crows and starlings, tits, and thrushes. There are many varieties of vultures, hawks, and owls. With regard to a bird called the *chuca*, a curious superstition prevails. Old time explorers believe that this bird pointed out the location of gold, and that if he flitted on the right-hand side of a traveller, and gave vent to his shrill, cherry note, the prospector would be fortunate in his quest. If, however, he whistled on the left hand, it was a sure harbinger of disaster. To this day the Chilenos are greatly influenced by these omens.

At certain seasons of the year, the air seems alive with beautiful butterflies, many of which are similar to those of Britain, while others are more richly hued. Dragon flies in the neighbourhood of water, are exceedingly numerous, and great, brilliantly coloured wasps, with shining and



THE TRANS-ANDINE RAILWAY CROSSING THE ANDES AT
12,000 FEET ABOVE SEA LEVEL



THE IRON MINES

metallic blue and red bodies, are exceedingly busy in the sunshine. They build enormous nests in the trees, and kill incredible numbers of flies, caterpillars, and even spiders. Their strength is prodigious, and it is a common spectacle to see a wasp flying off to its nest, carrying a caterpillar much heavier than itself in its jaws. In some butcher's shops they are encouraged to build their nests, so that the birds may act as animated fly catchers.

Under every stone in the country districts, great hairy spiders, as large as the palm of one's hand, make their home. Centipedes of all sizes are a great deal too common, and at certain seasons of the year, in the warmer districts, chicherras, or cicadas, keep up a perpetual din.

Thanks to the Andes, the saltos or locust, which has become such a serious menace to the agriculture of Argentina, is not, as yet, a formidable foe in Chile. Wild bees, as well as the gaudy wasps, are common everywhere, and in some districts the large, night-flying beetles and moths are an intolerable nuisance.

Every kind of fruit, flower, and vegetable that is known in this country, as well as dates, figs, melons, and other tropical varieties, grows with great luxuriance in Chile. Garden plants like fuchsias, calceolarias, geraniums, etc., grow wild, side by side with foxgloves and brambles.

As we have already pointed out, Chile is not one country, but a series of countries possessing different climates, vegetation and products. It does not require much imagination to realise the many and varied charms it presents to the naturalist and the tourist, who is now able to study an epitome of the world, in its sternest, grandest, and most beautiful forms, through the medium of a railway journey from north to south, without leaving the dominion of this unique land.

CHAPTER XXII

THE ARMY OF CHILE

Its Strength—Preparations for War—Soldier-like Capacities of the Chileno—The Chilean Conscript—His Superiority to the French or German—German Methods in the Chilean Army—The Past Wars of Chile—The War of Independence—Peru and Bolivia—Civil War of 1891—The Organisation of the Army—The Four Zones—The Chilean Cadet—The Making of the Officer—The Love of Military Life amongst the Chilenos.

People who are apt to regard Chile as a "toy republic" will be surprised to learn that, in the event of a great national emergency, the Government could, within a few weeks, put into the field an army of 350,000 perfectly equipped soldiers, equal in courage and endurance to the Japanese.

To those who are unacquainted with the conditions of life in Chile, it seems incredible that such an enormous army can be obtained from a small population of under 4,000,000; but those who know Chile and the Chileans are inclined to think that this number is under-estimated rather than exaggerated.

There are many who know Continental countries, such as France or Germany, where conscription prevails, who smile at the idea of so many competent soldiers being available, in the event of a national emergency, and are apt to regard the Chilean levies as "men with muskets," instead of soldiers in the strict military sense.

These critics, however, forget many essentials. To begin with, the Chilenos are soldiers by tradition and instinct. They are the descendants of the greatest fighters the world has ever seen, the Conquistadores and the Araucanian Indians.

Their history is, in its early stages, a record of almost continuous warfare with savage and irrepressible foes. During the past century, they have fought and defeated, against fearful odds, Spain, Peru, Bolivia, not to speak of

the terrible civil warfare which devastated parts of Chile in 1891.

In addition to a strange mixture of caution and reckless courage, his mixed ancestry has given the Chileno endurance, strength, and activity, far above that of the average European soldier or recruit. More than this, every Chileno, almost, is a born horseman—there are as many horses as there are adults in the Republic—and in the event of national peril, there is consequently no dearth of “men who can shoot and ride.”

Military service is compulsory in Chile. Every able-bodied youth of 20 serves in the army for twelve months, and then passes into successive reserves, until he attains the age of 45, when, except in cases of great emergency, he is exempt from active service.

By this method a standard army is maintained of 12,000 men, composed of 16 regiments of infantry, 6 regiments of cavalry, artillery, sappers, miners, and all the units that compose an army corps.

In the event of the First Reserve being called out, 50,000 men could be speedily mobilised, to be followed, if necessary, by another 100,000 soldiers in the prime of life.

It has been calculated that Chile could mobilise 150,000 men on any point of her frontier within six weeks, should ever such an emergency arise, which at present seems hardly conceivable.

The Chilean soldiers are armed with Mauser rifles, and are drilled in the Prussian style by Prussian officers. Curious to state, although the Chileans, from the time of the foundation of the Republic, practically entrusted the destinies of their navy to English officers, and rendered their ships of war replicas, to all intents and purposes, of British ships, so far as the equipment, discipline, and training of the crews were concerned, they resolved in the early eighties to re-model their army upon German lines.

A number of Prussian officers, including Colonel Kovner, were engaged to discipline the Chilenos, with the result that even casual observers are struck with the marked resem-

blance a Chilean regiment bears to the troops of the Fatherland.

Unlike some of the South American Republics, the Chilean Army, in spite of its strength, has seldom been a menace to the Civil power. As an organisation, it dates from the War of Independence, where the raw levies of valiant, though undisciplined peasants, workmen, and miners, were welded into a formidable fighting machine by San Martin and Bernardo O'Higgins, and not only succeeded in freeing Chile from the yoke of Spain, but also in liberating Peru.

The efficiency and discipline of the Chilean soldier was next evinced in the war against the Peru-Bolivian Confederation, in 1836, when, under General Bulnes, they won a series of brilliant victories, including the famous battle of Yungay, near Lima, where the confederate troops under General Santa Cruz were completely crushed.

The war against Peru and Bolivia, which lasted from 1879 till 1881, when Lima was taken by the Chilean Army, was long and sanguinary. It was a boundary war, fermented by Spain, which was still jealous of the progress of the new Republics, that, owing to the obstinate stupidity of her rulers and the intrigues of foreign capitalists, had ceased to belong to her Empire. This war is memorable for the important part played in it by the ironclads of both fleets, and for the fierce campaign that was waged, under tremendous difficulties, in the arid Tarapaca desert.

General Don Manuel Baquedano, the Chilean general, fought over a dozen desperate battles, and won the decisive battle of Tacria, with troops who had just completed a long forced march in that torrid zone.

The Campaign of the Pacific as this desert war is commonly termed, opened the eyes of Europe and the United States to the capabilities of the Chileno as "a first class fighting man." Up to now a Chilean army has never suffered defeat from a foreign foe.

The Civil War of 1891, which was largely the result of a capitalistic and newspaper conspiracy, also showed that the

Chileno was a formidable and fierce fighter. Since that time, the Germanizing of the Chilean Army has gone on apace, under Colonel, now General, Don Emilio Kovner, General Don Jorg Rivera, and General Don Estanislao del Canto.

The organisation both of the army and the military system is conducted upon the most scientific lines. The magnificent military school at Santiago corresponds to the Berlin Academy of War. The officials have made not only a thorough study of the military resources and geography of Chile, but they have also secured complete information concerning the other South American States. For military purposes, Chile is divided into four zones, each under a separate commander, who is responsible for the maintenance of a skeleton army corps, which can be raised to a war footing on the notice of mobilization. Military stores, hospitals, and arsenals exist in each of these zones. The passes and railway lines are well protected, and the seaport towns are strongly fortified. Every year the little army manœuvres on a grand scale, and the evolutions are watched by large and critical crowds.

Chilean officers undergo a very severe training and examination. Boys who have been educated for three years at a grammar school, enter the Military School at Santiago, between the ages of 13 and 18, and complete a four years' course of training. Then they go to the Military Academy, where they complete their education, and in three years' time obtain commissions.

Any Chilean who wishes, and can pass the preliminary examination, may reach the highest rank in the military service. Birth is no bar, although it would be idle to pretend that it is not a considerable advantage. Cadets have no fees whatever, to pay, as military training for officers, like all other branches of education in Chile, is entirely free.

Those who have seen a review of the Chilean troops by the President—the well-drilled infantry, the cavalry on their sturdy little horses, and the artillery with its up-

to-date guns—will have little difficulty in realizing what a power the country is as a fighting force. That the Chileans take their fighting men very seriously we gather from the following gem supplied by M. Cordemoy. “Ah! if you had only had 6,000 of our troops in 1870!”

The Chileno recruit loves the army. The gay uniform, drill, and military music, appeal to his nature, and during the nine months the young men of the country are on active service they vie with each other to excel in their military duties. “They are as enthusiastic as our Boy Scouts” said an English lady a short time ago, who was watching a Chilean regiment drilling on the Parade Ground at Santiago! The possibilities of the aeroplane for military purposes are being carefully studied, and an aeroplane department has been already formed in the Chilean Army.

The Chilean cavalry soldiers are armed with Mauser carbines, revolvers, and lances, similar to the Prussian Uhlans, and although the majority of the Army is composed of infantry, it would be a matter of no difficulty, in a country teeming with excellent horses, to transform them into a mounted force as mobile as the Boers, did occasion require it, at practically a moment’s notice. In action the Chileno soldier shows a disregard of death and a patience under fire that is Oriental rather than European; but when the word to charge is given, his impetuosity carries all before him. Without doubt he is the finest type of “fighting machine” the South American Continent has evolved!

CHAPTER XXIII

THE CHILEAN NAVY

Founded on British Models—Its Efficiency—Recent Additions—Education of Chilean Officers and Men—The Fleet of Chile—H. W. Wilson's Tribute to Chilean Naval Gallantry—The Famous Sea Duel between the Peruvian Ironclads "Independencia" and "Huascar" and the Chilean corvettes "Esmeralda" and "Covadonga"—Chilean Heroism.

The Navy, of which the Chileans are so justly proud, has been modelled on the lines of the British. For several years past a large proportion of Chilean naval officers have passed through a course of training on British men of war, and the majority of the Chilean ships have been built in England.

The Chilean Navy may be said to owe its origin to Lord Cochrane, and, since his period, it has closely followed the many changes that steam, armoured plates, and modern gunnery have caused. To-day, it is for its size, the most efficient navy in the world.

The Navy of Chile is composed of the following vessels: "Capitan Prat," battleship, 6,966 tons, 12,000 h.p., 18.3 knots, 1899; "O'Higgins," armoured cruiser, 8,500 tons, 16,000 h.p., 21.2 knots, 1896; "Esmeralda" armoured cruiser, 7,030 tons; "Blanco Encalada," protected cruiser; "Almirante Lynch," and "Almirante Condell"; torpedo gunboats, six destroyers, six torpedo boats, a training ship, and two great Dreadnoughts and two submarines, which are at present in the course of construction.

The education of the Chilean seaman is thorough in every respect. Cadets study for ~~three~~ years at the Naval Academy at Valparaiso, after which they go on a cruise of instruction on a training ship. Schools are maintained for the preliminary training of the man. Summer and winter manœuvres are carried out on the South and Northern coasts annually, and a great naval review is held every year.

In the event of war the Government have the right to claim a number of steamers, belonging to Chilean companies, which could be used as transports and scouts.

Ever since the first wooden vessel flew the flag of Chile "one and indivisible," the Chilean seaman has been renowned for his courage and resource.

In his famous work on "Ironclads in Action," H. W. Wilson pays the following tribute to the courage of the Chileno tar.

In his account of the famous sea-duel between the Peruvian ironclads, "Independencia" and "Huascar," and the Chilean corvettes, "Esmeralda" and "Covadonga," which took place on May 21st, 1879, on the outbreak of the war between Chile and Peru, that writer says:—

"The first action of any note in this war, is of striking importance as showing what may be effected by a resolute man, with odds overwhelmingly against him. Indeed the gallantry which the Chileans displayed on this occasion almost matched the splendid heroism of Grenville and his seamen of the 'Revenge.' In May, 1879, the Chilean Admiral Rebolledo, was blockading Iquique, with the greater part of the Chilean fleet, when the news reached him that General Prado, the Peruvian President, was sailing South, from Callao to Arica, with a number of transports and warships. On this Rebolledo at once went to intercept the Peruvians with his ironclads and sloops. He left his two slowest and most worthless ships, the 'Esmeralda' and the 'Covadonga,' at Iquique, to continue the blockade, but failed to capture General Prado, or to bring him to action, owing to a three days' fog, which enabled the Peruvians sailing without lights, to pass the Chileans. Having reached Arica in safety, General Prado heard by telegraph, that there were only these two ships, the 'Huascar' and 'Independencia' to do the work. The 'Huascar' was commanded by Captain Gran, and the 'Independencia' by Captain Moore.

"By daylight on May 21st, the two were off Iquique,

and were seen by the 'Esmeralda.' This vessel was commanded by Arturo Prat, an officer of the most determined courage and of great professional ability. He was thirty one years of age and the idol of his crew. Upon the approach of the enemy, he saw that as to escape with two ships was hopeless, he decided then to fight to the last, though had he scuttled his ships and surrendered, no one could have blamed him. Before his crew went to quarters he made them a short speech, which deserves to be remembered. 'Boys the odds are against us, but our flag has never been lowered in the presence of the enemy, and I hope that it will not be to-day. As long as I live that flag shall fly in its place, and if I die my officers will know how to do their duty.' The 'Esmeralda' and the 'Covadonga' then cleared for action, whilst a Chilean transport in the harbour was sent off southwards for safety.

"At 8 a.m. 'Huascar' fired her first shot, which dropped between the two Chileans. A few minutes later, the fight began, the turret ship attacking the 'Esmeralda' and the 'Independencia' the 'Covadonga.' Nothing could exceed Prat's skill. He had placed his vessel close to the Peruvian town, so that if the 'Huascar' fired carelessly at her, shot and shell must fall into it and cause the Peruvians damage. He was supposed to be surrounded by mines, on the strength of information brought by the Captain of the port, who had put out in a small boat to the Huascar before the engagement. The 'Huascar' could therefore use neither her ram nor her guns with effect upon her small opponent. After an hour's desultory fighting, the 'Covadonga' began to steer south, keeping close in shore and almost on the breakers, whilst the 'Independencia' followed on her heels. Meantime the Peruvians ashore had brought down a field battery to the beach, and opened at a range of 300 to 400 yards upon the 'Esmeralda,' with this artillery and with small arms. Boats also were putting off, and endeavouring to board her and the 'Covadonga.' So hot and galling was the fire of the guns on land that the 'Esmeralda' was obliged to leave the protection of the

shoal water, where she was safe from the 'Huascar's' ram, if not from her guns. At this point, two of her boilers burst, and her speed sank to three knots. Three had been killed and three wounded on board by the fire of the field battery, but not one as yet by the 'Huascar.'

"Soon after ten o'clock she had moved from her position, and at once the 'Huascar' tried to ram her, as Captain Gran found that his fire was most ineffective, and would not be likely of itself to disable her. Indeed during the four hours which the actions lasted, the 'Huascar' fired forty rounds from her heavy turret guns, of which only one shot struck the target. This passed through the 'Esmeralda's' side, and bursting in the engine room, killed all the engineers and disabled the engines. The lighter guns were more effective. The Chileans in reply fired with great steadiness and accuracy, their feeble 40 pounder shells striking their enemy's turret, and side repeatedly, but failing to do the slightest damage, owing to the 'Huascar's' armour. At 10.30 the 'Huascar' rammed for the first time. At the rate of eight knots, steering north-east, she struck the 'Esmeralda,' which was nearly motionless, on her port quarter. One length off the Chilean ships, the 'Huascar's' engines were stopped, but either because of this or because the 'Esmeralda' veered, as she was struck, and only caught a glancing blow, little damage was done. For an instant the two vessels were in contact: Arturo Prat's moment had come. In the din and confusion his voice was heard crying, 'Boys, on board her,' and he himself leapt on the 'Huascar's' fore-castle, followed only by one man, a serjeant of Marines. The rest of the crew, though their courage was equal to his, did not hear what he said, or could not follow him before the ships separated. Sword in hand, Prat rushed onward, but just as he neared the turret, a bullet struck him and killed him. By fortune's will, he fell fighting against heavy odds on the 'Huascar's' deck, where months later his antagonist, Gran, was to die, also with the odds against him. Arturo Prat, by his glorious death, left a

memory which is revered by all Chileans and by all who admire heroic deeds. The finest ship in the Chilean fleet now bears his name.

“The command of the ‘Esmeralda’ passed to Lieutenant Uribe. Her decks were covered with killed and wounded, but she still fought on. The ‘Huascar’ having backed clear, rammed her again, leading southwards, but this time the ‘Esmeralda’ succeeded in presenting her bows to the enemy, who came on, and stopping too soon struck her a tremendous blow on the starboard bow. At this moment Lieutenant Serrano followed by a boarding party, leapt on board the Peruvian ship. He could do nothing, as the ships parted before more than a handful of Chileans could pass on to their enemy’s deck. All the party were shot down, but had they been more numerous the ‘Huascar’ might have been carried. Her crew, according to Captain Gran, were demoralised by the steady fire of the ‘Esmeralda.’ One solid shot had entered a turret port and pierced the interior without harming any one, had it been a shell the result would have been very different. The tripod mast had been hit and was in danger of falling, when it would probably jam the turret. The Chilean rifle fire was so rapid and well maintained, that it was taken to be from machine guns. The ‘Independencia’ had vanished to the South; a few more minutes and the ‘Huascar’ might find herself helpless. But her ram had done the ‘Esmeralda’ great damage, though the heavy guns had effected little. The magazine in the Chilean ship was flooded, and there were no cartridges left. The rudder had been shattered by a shell, and the interior of the vessel was like a shambles. The doctor and all the wounded had perished by the projectile which burst in the engine room. It was a sinking ship which the ‘Huascar’ rammed for the third time, going full speed. Her engines were stopped when only twenty feet off, and striking squarely the ‘Esmeralda’s’ starboard beam, her ram plunged into the Chilean ship’s side. When she backed out, the ‘Esmeralda’ went to the bottom with

colours still flying. Of her crew, which numbered 200 officers and men, only 63 were saved.

“While the ‘Esmeralda’ was fighting to the death, the ‘Covadonga’ had been manœuvred with great skill and coolness. She had an English pilot on board, who led the pursuing ‘Independencia’ as close ashore and as near the breakers and reefs as he could. The Peruvian gunners were raw and untrained, though often only 200 yards off the target, they could not hit. The Chilean gunnery was admirable. The Chilean small-arms poured in a hail of bullets upon all of their enemy’s deck, and in succession wounded three. Captain Moore, of the ‘Independencia,’ began to fear that in spite of his superiority in speed, his nimble foe would escape him. A third attempt was made off Punta Gruesa. The ‘Covadonga,’ now but one hundred yards from the shore, had touched a reef, but owing to her light draught came off without damage. Steering south-east, her heavier antagonist ran at her. Aiming a blow at her starboard quarter, missed and struck the rock with great violence.

“At this critical moment the fire from the ‘Covadonga’ had killed the man at the ‘Independencia’s’ wheel, and prevented him from porting his helm. Once fast on the rock, the Peruvian ironclad was helpless. The ‘Covadonga’ instantly steamed round her, taking up a position eastern where the Peruvians could not bring a gun to bear, plied them hotly with 70 pounder shells. In a few minutes the ironclad’s stern was on fire, and it is asserted by the Chileans that a white flag was displayed. Fortunately for the Peruvians help was at hand.

“The ‘Independencia’ had struck about mid-day. The ‘Huascar’ picked up all the Chileans who could be found in the water, and then proceeded in search of her consort. The ‘Covadonga’ sighted her at a distance of ten miles, and at once made off southwards as she had no wish to encounter a second ironclad. Seeing the ‘Independencia’ inshore, Captain Gran ran in to speak to her, and the delay necessary to effect this gave the ‘Covadonga’ a start

which saved her, ascertaining that the grounded ship stood in no need of immediate assistance, being indeed past help, Gran continued the chase along the coast till dusk, when the 'Covadonga' was still ten miles away, but as smoke was reported in the offing to the north-west, and as the arrival of the Chilean ironclads was apprehended, the chase was then abandoned. Returning to the 'Independencia,' Gran took off her crew and burnt her, since she could not be moved."

When one reads of exploits like this the title of Chile to be "the England of the West" appears to be well founded.

CHAPTER XXIV

HOW THE PANAMA CANAL WILL INFLUENCE CHILE

Cost of the Panama Canal—A New Era in the World's Economic History—Its Effects on the South American Republics—Improvements at Valparaiso—Coming International Struggle for Chile's Trade—Chile likely to become a Manufacturing Country—Industrial Transformation—The Lancashire Climate compared to that of Southern Chile—Labour and Raw Material—Cotton Spinning in Chile—The Chiguayante Mills—The Woollen Industry—Its Possibilities in Chile—The Bella Vista Cloth Factory—Sugar Refineries—Boot Factories—Exports of Beer—The "Times" on the Panama Canal—Its Probable Effect on the Political Stability of the South American Republics—The Rev. W. D. Standfast's Views—Chile as a Winter Resort.

The construction of the Suez Canal was one of the greatest and most wonderful of all modern engineering enterprises. The wonders of that achievement, however, sink into insignificance, when it is compared to the construction of the Panama Canal, which the United States will have completed within a short time, at the estimated cost of £75,000,000.

It is probable that the Panama Canal will open an era in the world's economic activity, which can only be compared to the discovery of the New World by Columbus. One of its immediate results will be an enormous stimulus to the young Republics, of Central and West Southern America, which have only been prevented from becoming the world's Eldorados, by their distance from the great centres of commerce, and the difficulties of transporting their riches to the markets of the world.

Chile especially will be benefited to an almost incalculable extent by the opening of the Canal. In anticipation of an enormous increase of ocean traffic, the Chilean Government are spending £3,000,000 sterling upon improvements on the harbour of Valparaiso, so that the largest vessels afloat can be accommodated there.

£1,000,000 is also being spent on the Port of Talcahuano,

the headquarters of the Chilean Navy. New York, which is at present further by sea from Iquique and Valparaiso, than from Liverpool, will be within ten days of these ports and a Titanic struggle for the rapidly increasing trade of Chile, is sure to occur between England, the United States, and Germany.

This will continue for many years, until the increase of population in Chile will enable her to take her place, as she will inevitably some day, as a great manufacturing and exporting country; when she will prove a serious competitor, in the Eastern and Australian markets, in textiles, woollens, paper, and leather goods.

Within our own generation, we have seen the Arauco district, the home of Lautaro and Caupolican, transformed into the Newcastle of the Pacific. It is not at all unlikely that the next generation may witness the transformation of Concepcion and Valdivia, into Boltons and Bradfords.

Lancashire depends upon its supremacy in textiles, which it holds mainly on account of its population of highly skilled operatives, and its humid, rainy climate.

The climate of the South of Chile is even more suitable than Lancashire for the ideal conditions of cotton spinning; and the Chileans, both male and female, equal in intelligence the lads and lasses of Lancashire.

The only reasons why this district of Chile has not already been studded with cotton mills, are the scarcity of labour, and the difficulties in obtaining raw cotton. The opening of the Panama Canal will place New Orleans in close proximity to the Republic of Chile, and in all likelihood there will be an exodus of poor Italians, Spaniards and other denizens of Southern Europe to the Western coast of South America, whose labour will eventually be exploited by capitalists seeking new fields for investment.

The experiment of cotton spinning, has already been tried successfully in Chile. The cotton mills of Chiguayante British owned and British managed, manufacture large quantities of textiles suitable to the home market. That the woollen industry will develop with great rapidity

seems probable, especially when it is remembered that Chile exports enormous quantities of wool, a great deal of which is re-imported as cloth.

Since 1865, suitings, blankets, shawls, and all manner of woollen goods have been manufactured at Tome, near Concepcion, by the Bella Vista Cloth Factory.

Already Chile possesses a sugar refinery at Vina del Mar that turns out 25,000 tons per annum. Her boot factories, at Valdivia, supply the Army and Navy, and her breweries export large quantities of beer all over the South American Continent. The iron and steel works and pulping mills have already been alluded to. Judging from these facts, and the diverse climatic conditions which Chile enjoys, there seems little reason to doubt that the Panama Canal will prove a powerful impetus towards this progressive Republic becoming a great manufacturing and mercantile nation. In this respect, the following extract from the *Times*, in whose columns the question of the great influence of the Panama Canal has been recently discussed, will be read with interest :—

“About one-third of the import trade of the South American Pacific States is the export of Great Britain, and Germany is second with about twenty-five per cent. ; the United States have only about one-tenth. Thus there is an enormous preponderance against the U.S.A. With the greater convenience occasioned by the Panama Canal, and through the further effort that she may be expected to put forth by reason of that increased convenience, it is certain that American trade on the Pacific slope of South America will expand materially. The principal British exports to these markets consists of textiles (cotton and woollen) metals, machinery, and ships. There is no indication that British supremacy in ship-building is about to be challenged by the United States, and the woollen trade is another department of manufacture that seems destined to remain in British hands in the immediate future. Metals will fall rather an easy victory to American enterprise, when it puts forth its



DRAPER'S SHOP ON THE NITRATE FIELDS



GANG READY TO ENTER "BOILING-TANK" TO DISCHARGE REFUSE

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best efforts to capture the trade. Cottons will be keenly contested, and although the American may prevail, the day of victory is far off. In machinery, the contest will also be keen.

“The trade in machinery for the South American markets—particularly mining machinery—is certain to grow in the near future. Agricultural machinery is increasingly important, and here the British manufacturer is not on his surest grounds. Mixed industrial machinery will also be in fair demand for the expanding industries of the developing Republics, and for the requirements of the various departments included under this heading, preference will be distributed; but the Americans, backed by their closer proximity, and by their general practice of giving quicker deliveries, will be exceptionally strong competitors when time is an important factor.

“Orders will be largely influenced by the nationality of those whose capital is supporting the enterprise. For many years, the capital will be outside capital—British, American, German—and the officers of the exploiting companies will naturally order the goods and appliances with which they are most familiar.

“German influence in South America must not be taken as of little consequence; much of the trading is in German hands, and German capital is seeking investment in the industrial field. Importations from Germany are not far behind those of Great Britain in point of value. But the Panama Canal will not be a factor in the trade rivalry between Great Britain and Germany, so that a consideration of that rivalry does not come within the scope of our present investigation. The importance of the British supplies is one of the factors that will tend to retain for Britain her hold upon the import trade of these countries. Shipping routes, shipping rates, and the need for return cargoes are potent influences in setting the currents of international trade.”

The question of the political stability of Chile and the surrounding Republics, and the influence of the Panama

Canal upon them will naturally be asked. The answer is supplied by the Rev. W. D. Standfast, Chaplain of Lima, who writes:—

“With the opening of the canal this difficulty will be relegated to the dull limbo of the forgotten past. For these countries a new era of bright hopefulness and contented activity is shortly to arise. It is true that in the past political conditions have been of a most unsettled nature. But this need not disturb our calculations in the slightest degree. The opening of the Panama Canal will remove the prime cause of all this political unrest and disorder. The new opportunities will tax to the utmost the mental and physical energy of every individual in these States. Their whole time will be occupied in dealing with the good and real, and there will be found no man so foolish as to waste his time and energy in running after the will-o'-the-wisp of the imaginary and the unreal. Instead of revolution and social upheavals there will arise an era of social content and stable government.”

Another result of the opening of the Panama Canal will be that Northern Chile is likely to become a winter resort for wealthy Americans. Its climate is superior to that of the West Indies, and the attractions of its towns and scenery are infinitely superior to the West Indian Islands.

CHAPTER XXV

CHILE'S ROMANTIC ISLANDS

Captain Juan Fernandez—The Squadron of Nassau—Pirates and Maroons—Alexander Selkirk—His Life on Juan Fernandez—Memorial Tablet to his Memory—Juan Fernandez, a Convict Establishment—Women Exiles—The Sealing Trade—Chilean Patriots at Juan Fernandez—Juan Fernandez a No Man's Land—Leased to a Swiss Soldier of Fortune—Fisheries and Lobsters—Chiloe and the Chiloean Archipelago—Indian Wars—Dutch Pirates—Climate, Emigrants—Easter Island—Its Mysterious Statues—Theories of their Origin—Narratives of Explorers—Its Inhabitants—Chilean Leaseholder and English Governor—Sheep-farming and Fruit Growing.

A short time after the death of the great Inca, Atahualpa, Captain Juan Fernandez commenced to explore the South Sea, and gave his name to a group of islands, 300 miles from the mainland, which have become so familiar to English readers, through the story of Alexander Selkirk and the magic pages of "Robinson Crusoe." Juan Fernandez took formal possession of the islands for the King of Spain, in 1571.

Very little attention was paid to the islands of Juan Fernandez, during the sixteenth century, but, in the first quarter of the seventeenth, the islands were thoroughly explored by the expedition known as the "Squadron of Nassau," sent by Prince Maurice of Nassau.

It was then made known that the islands were teeming with goats and wild dogs, that tropical and semi-tropical fruits grew in great profusion, and that seals, sea-birds, and fish abounded on the shores.

This report as to the favourable conditions prevailing on Juan Fernandez soon got noised abroad, and the islands became a favourite resort for the buccaneers and pirates that infested the seas. Alexander Selkirk was by no means the first man to be marooned there. Thirty years previous to Selkirk voluntarily choosing the island as his solitary abode, a famous pirate, named Sharp, marooned a member of his crew in 1682, who was never afterwards heard of, and is supposed to have died in the island.

On September 4th, 1704, a privateering vessel, named the "Cinque Ports" of 16 guns, under the command of Captain Thomas Stradling, put into Juan Fernandez for provisions, and also to recover two seamen, who had been accidentally left behind on the occasion of a previous visit, some months before.

On the island, a quarrel occurred between Stradling and his quarter-master, Alexander Selkirk, a native of Largo, in Fifeshire; and Selkirk resolved to remain in the island rather than sail with Captain Stradling. The story of the four years and four months he lived on the island is well known, but it is not so generally recorded that his solitude was twice disturbed by the advent of ships.

It throws a side light upon the savagery of the time, when we find that one of these ships, believed by Selkirk to have been a Spanish vessel, sighted the recluse standing on a rock, and straightway opened fire upon him.

Selkirk was eventually taken off the island by a privateer called "The Duke," commanded by Captain Woodes Rogers. He soon became mate and afterwards commander of a sister vessel, the "Increase," and eventually, after a long and successful piratical career, returned to England the possessor of about £1,000.

Selkirk afterwards became a lieutenant on H.M.S. Weymouth, and died at the age of 47. An iron tablet erected on Tunque Mountain, Juan Fernandez, from which Selkirk used to look out for ships, commemorates his memory, in the island in which he so long lived in solitude.

Eventually the depredations of the pirates became so serious that, in 1749, the Viceroy of Peru resolved to fortify the island, and establish a permanent garrison. Soon afterwards it was converted into a convict establishment, and become the Siberia of South America, on a small scale.

The prisoners were mainly political offenders and victims of the Inquisition who escaped death. Young women of easy virtue, and girls who had been convicted of petty offences, both in Spain and in South America, were banished to this island, and ladies possessing influence



STRAITS OF MAGELLAN



LAKE IN COUSIÑO PARK

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with king or viceroy, were frequently able to secure the incarceration of a fair rival upon this remote land, which at that time was an inferno of cruelty and lust.

Then the value of the seals which frequented the coasts became known to the Spaniards, and, fearful of disturbing these valuable animals, the banishment of convicts to Juan Fernandez ceased for the time. So vast was the number of seals, around the shores of these islands, that one ship in 1801 brought away one million furs! Up to the outbreak of the War of Independence in 1812, there were usually from a dozen to twenty ships engaged in sealing.

In the last few years of her dominion, Spain restored the horrors of the Convict settlements, and used Juan Fernandez as a place of banishment for the patriots. They were taken off the island by the Chilean Government after the success of the revolution, and Juan Fernandez again became a "No man's land."

A prison for political prisoners was again established there in 1832, by Don Diego Portales, when some of the worst evils of the old Spanish misrule appear to have been revived. In the course of time, the supply of prisoners died out, and Juan Fernandez became practically forgotten. At last, in 1877, the Chilean Government determined to put the lease of the islands of Juan Fernandez to auction, and it was knocked down to a Swiss gentleman, named Alfred de Root, who had served with France with distinction in the war of 1870. He determined to make the islands his permanent home, and the result is that a thriving colony and trade exists there to-day.

The fisheries have been considerably developed, and Juan Fernandez is renowned for its lobsters, which exist in extraordinary numbers. A canning factory has been established in the island by Messrs Carlos Fonck and Company, of Valparaiso, and a large trade in tinned lobsters and cod fish is being done. Several smacks, and a steamer which trades regularly to Valparaiso, are employed, all the year round, in cod and lobster fishings.

The large island of Chiloe, which lies close to the coast, south of Valdivia, is surrounded by more than a hundred small islands which form the Chiloean archipelago. There are great forests in Chiloe, that are as yet practically unknown. Chiloe has had an exciting history. The Indians, who inhabited it, fought fiercely against the Spaniards, and towards the middle of the seventeenth century, it was practically abandoned to their hands.

The Dutch pirates, under Captain Hendrik Brouwer, destroyed a Spanish fort at Castro, and built a fort at Valdivia. The Indians at first welcomed the Dutch, as allies against the Spaniards. There was every likelihood of South Chile becoming a Dutch settlement, but Brouwer died, and the Indians after quarrelling with his successor, refused to bring in provisions, and retired into their fastnesses in the forest, with the result that the Dutch abandoned their forts. During the War of Independence, Chiloe was the scene of many desperate engagements. Of late years, many old time churches and dwellings, built by the early Spaniards, have been discovered hidden by dense forests, ferns, and leaves. The atmosphere is humid, and as the temperature is always like spring, immense crops of fruit and vegetables are raised in the cultivated parts.

Some years ago considerable discontent existed on the island amongst foreign colonists who had been induced to emigrate to Chiloe. The task of clearing the land of giant trees appalled them, and the heavy rainfall filled them with gloom, and with the conviction, that it was almost impossible to gain a livelihood in the island. Patience and perseverance, however, overcame these initial difficulties, and to-day, the island, which Darwin described as "wind and water swept" is in a thriving condition.

Easter Island, one of the most mysterious islands in the world, is another Chilean possession, having been occupied by them, for some unknown reason, in 1838. It is situated in the middle of the South Pacific, more than two thousand miles west of the Chilean coast, and forms the farthest outpost of the vast series of Pacific Islands.

The island is one of the most picturesque and beautiful of the gems of the South Sea. It is volcanic in origin, and, though small in area—less than 40,000 acres—presents a vista of landscape, mountain, valley, and plain surpassed for beauty by few spots in the world. It is triangular in shape, thirteen miles in diameter, and has several large extinct craters, one of which is nearly two thousand feet high. The soil, which is very fertile, consists of decomposed lava. There are no trees, the tallest vegetation being bushes some ten to twelve feet high.

The population, at the time of the discovery of the islands, was probably not less than about three thousand, but in 1863 some Peruvian vessels anchored in the bay, and sent ashore some boats' crews, who seized every native they could lay hands on, and carried them off to the guano diggings on the Chíncha Islands, where many of them perished. In the following year a Jesuit missionary, from Tahiti, visited the greatly diminished population, and was very successful in his efforts to christianize and civilize them, as was to be expected in a nation so docile and tractable as are the Easter Islanders. Later many were sent to Tahiti, and in 1901 there were only about 100 natives left upon the island.

The original discoverers of Easter Island were, of course, the Polynesian natives, who first inhabited it, or some earlier race, of whom we know absolutely nothing.

In the year 1770, under instructions issued by the Viceroy of Peru, in obedience to a royal command, two vessels of the royal navy of Spain, the "San Lorenzo" and the "Santa Rosalia," under the command of Don Felix Gonzalez, were fitted out for the purpose of annexing certain land in the Eastern Pacific Ocean, which had been reported by Edward Davis, in 1637, and was still somewhat mystically designated the "Island of David." Their objective was Easter Island, a name previously given to it, in 1722, by Jacob Roggeveen, the first European to set foot upon its shores. It may or may not be the same land that Davis thought he sighted. Many give to the pilot,

Juan Fernandez, the honour of first discovery ; but his claims are generally considered to be vague ; and though there is nothing inconsistent with the theory of his having fallen in with Easter Island, he is generally credited with having concocted, for his own profit, and that of his ship-mates, its true position.

It was on Sunday, April 5th, 1722, that the afternoon watch of *The African Galley*, one of Jacob Roggeveen's vessels, after sighting a turtle, floating weeds, and birds, all indications of proximity to land, made the signals of land in sight, and reported a low flattish island lying to starboard. The little fleet drew near to the island, and anchored close to it. Next day, in the words of the ship's log : " During the forenoon Captain Boreman brought an Easter Islander on board, together with his craft, in which he had come off close to the ship from the land ; he was quite nude without the slightest covering for that which modesty shrinks from revealing. This hapless creature seemed to be very glad to behold us, and showed the greatest wonder at the build of our ship. He took special notice of the tautness of our spars, the stoutness of our rigging and running gear, the sails, the guns—which he felt all over with minute attention—and with everything else that he saw ; especially when the image of his own features were displayed before him in a mirror, seeing which, he started suddenly back, and then looked towards the back of the glass, apparently in the expectation of discovering there the cause of the apparition. After we had sufficiently beguiled ourselves with him, and he with us, we started him off again in his canoe towards the shore, having presented him with two strings of blue beads around his neck, a small mirror, a pair of scissors, and other like trifles, which seemed to have a special attraction for him."

Another account of Roggeveen's visit describes their landing, and how many of the natives were shot in a

* Hakluyt Society, Voyages. Second Series, No. XIII., p 9.

quarrel that somehow arose. This killing appears to have been done by way of deliberate massacre, and not in self-defence, for the narrative proceeds: "The people had, to judge by appearances, no weapons; although, as I remarked, they relied in case of need, on their gods, or idols which stand erected all along the sea-shore in great numbers, before which they fall down and invoke them. These idols were all hewn out of stone, yet in the form of a man, with long ears, adorned on the head with a crown, yet all made with skill, whereat we wondered not a little. A clear space was reserved round these objects of worship by laying stones to a distance of twenty or thirty paces. I took some of the people to be priests because they paid more reverence to the gods than did the rest; and showed themselves much more devout in their ministrations. One could also distinguish these from the other people quite well, not only by their wearing great white plugs in their ear-lobes, but in having the head wholly shaven and hairless."*

The logs of Captain Don Gonzalez's expedition also give us some interesting particulars. As they drew near the island, they were able to see, from a distance of eight or nine leagues, that it was not mountainous, but of quite moderate height, and not timbered. Approaching to within three leagues of the shore, they noticed that the island seemed to be covered with green scrub, "one species of coarse bush standing prominently above the rest so as to give an appearance like pyramids on the beach, as if symmetrically set up. These were also dotted in a scattered fashion about the country inland, which appeared to us to be fertile, as we observed no broken ground nor precipices, nor stony places throughout it, but various valleys and plains forming the mountainous plateau as it were, and quite covered with greenery as far down as the sea beach, showing the fertility of the country." Gonzalez soon decided to send a landing party to explore the island. As the boats anchored in the bay they saw

* *Ibid.*, p. 136.

numbers of natives divided into batches, "all wearing cloaks of a yellow colour or white. There was not the least appearance of hostility, nor of the implements of war about them; I only saw many demonstrations of rejoicing and much yelling. . . . We saw some natives swim off and pass on board of the Commodore; the rest remained on the sea-beach, in loose cloaks shouting with delight, and giving other signs, all intended to make us aware of their docility and of their desire to come on board, or to see us on shore."* Having landed they made a very interesting discovery.

"We have ascertained that what we took for shrubs of a pyramidal form are in reality statues or images of the idols which the natives worship; they are of stone, and of such a height and corpulence that they look like great thick columns, and as I afterwards ascertained in examining them and taking their dimensions, the entire body is of a single block, and the crown or head-dress of another; there is a small concavity on the upper surface of the latter, in which they place the bones of their dead, from which it may be inferred that they serve at once for idols and funeral pyres. But it is difficult to understand how they can have set up such superb statues, and maintained them properly balanced on so many small stones as are placed in the base or plinth which sustains their great weight. The material of the statue is very hard stone, and therefore weighty; having tried it myself with a hoe it struck fire; a proof of its density. The crown is of a different stone, which is plentiful in the island; but I have not seen any like that of the figures; its workmanship is very crude. The only feature in the configuration of the face is a rough excavation for the eyes; the nostrils are fairly imitated, and the mouth extends from ear to ear, as shown by a slight groove or excavation in the stone. The neck bears some similitude; arms and legs are wanting, and it proceeds from the neck downwards in the form of a rudely fashioned trunk. The diameter of the crown is much greater than

* Ibid, pp. 92, 93.

that of the head on which it rests, and its lower edge projects greatly beyond the forehead of the figure; a position which excites wonder that it does not fall. I was able to clear up this difficulty on making an examination of another smaller statue from whose head there projected a kind of tenon, constructed to fit into a sort of slot or mortice, corresponding to it in the crown; so that by this device the latter is sustained, notwithstanding its overlapping the forehead. That a people lacking machinery and materials for constructing any, should be able to raise the crown or headpiece on to a statue of such height causes wonder, and I even think that the stone of which the statues are made is not of this island, in which iron, hemp, and stout timber are absolutely unknown. Much remains to be worked out on the subject."*

Such was the first detailed account—written in 1770 by an officer of the frigate "Santa Rosalia," one of Gonzalez's vessels—of these mysterious statues, concerning which so much controversy has arisen.

But the images are not the only remains that some prehistoric people unknown have left upon Easter Island. At the extreme south-west end of the island are eighty or more stone houses, built in regular lines, with doors facing the sea. The walls of these buildings, about 40 feet long, some five feet thick, and five and a half feet high, are built of stones lined inside with flat slabs of stone, and printed on the interior, in red, black, and white, with figures of birds, faces, mythic animals, and geometric figures. It was from one of these houses that a statue, eight feet high, and weighing four tons, was brought to England, and presented by Queen Victoria, in 1869, to the authorities of the British Museum. There the visitor may see him to-day, with a smaller companion, between the Ionic columns, on the right of the flight of steps leading up to the entrance to the British Museum. *Hoa-Haka-Nana-Ia*, as he is called, is a figure worth more than a passing glance. With his huge bulk, his low forehead,

* Ibid, pp. 43, 94.

the shadows lying dark in his deep-set eye-sockets—that probably had eyeballs of obsidian once inserted in them—his flat snout, with full, wide nostrils, his wide, sullen mouth raised by the cruel upward thrust of the lower lip, he is the typically savage and disdainful god of a nation whose religion was fear. Near the house whence he came, the rocks at the edge of the cliffs by the sea, some of them overgrown and hidden with bushes and grasses, have been carved into many a strange shape of tortoise, or of human being.

But the bulk of these images stand upon platforms of stone placed upon the headlands around the islands. Some of these platforms presented to the sea a wall twenty or thirty feet high, and from two to three hundred feet long, one of the most perfect of which had fifteen statues upon it. These images were all of lava stone, excepting the crowns or head-pieces, which were made of red vesicular stuff, found only at a small crater called Terano Kau, where a few years ago there were still thirty crowns, some of them ten and a half feet in diameter, for which heads, royal or divine, are still waiting.*

The origin and the significance of these extraordinary images remain equally enigmatic; no scientists are able to offer a satisfactory explanation. Some say that they are idols, others that they were erected as memorial stones. The natives can throw no light upon the matter, except to repeat their tradition, that many generations ago, a migration took place from Oparo or Rapa-iti, one of the Austral group, in memory of which they call Easter Island Rapa-nui (Great Rapa), to distinguish it from Rapa-iti (Little Rapa). "The gods," they say, "carved these statues and told them to walk." How or when the stones were actually hewn, how they were carried or lifted, by natives living, presumably, in a stone age, we can only

* Molina has a quaint theory concerning the statues: "To the sight and touch they appear like stone; but as they are all of a single piece, and there are no quarries in the island capable of furnishing stones of that size, it is probable that they are formed of some kind of plaister or cement that, when dry, assumes the consistency and colour of stone."



RIVER LAJA FALL, NEAR "LOS ANGELES" (CHILE)



A FAMILY OF WORSHIPPERS AT KARURUNGI

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conjecture; and increasing knowledge only adds to our difficulties. The most plausible theory is that Easter Island, and the other islands of the southern ocean are the most recently formed portion of the globe, and are the peaks of submerged mountains—remnants of an ancient continent that once existed where now the Pacific rolls her waters.

Those who desire further information on the origin of the Easter Island statues should read the brilliant writings of Professor Keane, the works of the great geographer, Pierre Loti, Señors Ignacio Gana, and Jose Ramon Ballesteros. Malter Brun holds the theory of the islands being the crest of a lost Continent, while other eminent scientists, including Señor Ribaud, are of the opinion that, when compared with the rest of the world, the South Sea islands are of recent origin, being the result of volcanic activity and coral workings. Only one fact concerning these statues apparently is known, and that is, like the birth of Jeames Yellowplush, they are “wropt in mystery.”

Easter Island is largely under the control of the Chilean capitalist, Señor Don Enrique Merlet, who rents the greater part from the Government. The three hundred inhabitants, two hundred and fifty of whom are Kanakas, have their laws administered by an English governor, named Mr. H. Cooper, whom the Chilean Government appointed some years ago.

Sheep farming is carried on with considerable success on Easter Island, which is fast gaining a reputation for its Merino wool.

All sorts of fruits and vegetables grow in great abundance, but communication with the mainland is uncertain, as a Government steamer with mails and necessaries is only despatched to the Isle de Pascua once a year, from Valparaiso, and the calls of trading vessels are few and far between.

CHAPTER XXVI

CHILEAN COASTING STEAMERS

Wheelwright Inaugurates Coasting Service—Omnibus Steamers—The Passengers—Scenery—How to See Chile.

Chile was the first South American country to possess a line of steamships devoted to her coasting trade. Wheelwright, the Boston engineer, who constructed the first Chilean railway in 1851, inaugurated the West Coast steam ships traffic some years previously, which to-day has assumed very large dimensions. These omnibus steamers patrol the coast, at intervals of a few days, and are a cheap and excellent method of passage.

On these boats the traveller comes in contact with a human epitome of South America, says a writer in the "Falkland Islands Magazine." Merchants, prospectors, engineers, commercial travellers, adventurers of all sorts, skilled mechanics, politicians, soldiers, priests—all these are found on the move in a continuous stream. They speak a variety of languages, over which, however, Spanish prevails, and anyone who has to be much in this country does well to pick up something of this language, which is, perhaps the easiest of all languages for English people to learn, or he may often find himself in difficulties. The steamers are roomy and comfortable and the weather is almost invariably calm, and generally warm.

The vessels are built on a different principle from ocean liners. Nearly all the cabins open directly upon two decks, and the dining-room, saloon, and smoke-room are above, where they get all the air and command an extensive view. There is but one class, exclusive of the deck passengers—who congregate below, consequently the assemblage is of a very mixed kind.

On the lower deck the cabins extend in one long line from stem to stern, and the passengers generally occupy the

deck space just in front, where they read, or sew, or amuse themselves without moving much about.

As you walk up and down, the motley assembly lies before you, each individual occupying the same space day after day, like the dwellers in a row of cottages enjoying their front gardens under one long common awning.

North of Valparaiso the coast is somewhat monotonous. After passing Coquimbo there is no vegetation until one is well in the tropics, and for hundreds of miles there are brown hills rising abruptly from the sea, broken only by the dreary-looking nitrate towns occupying strips of sandy soil where space sufficient for them has been left at their feet.

After the first novelty has worn off, the sameness begins to pall, and the frequent stoppages of the steamers at these places grow tedious.

However, ocean travel is never dull to some. When there is nothing more important on hand passengers may pass a very pleasant day lounging under the awning in the fresh warm air, and if tired of novels and other light amusements, there is a wonderful wealth of bird life to watch all along the coast, and often the sea is swarming with great fish.

The peculiar rich, warm colouring of the hills, too, at sunset, is something not seen elsewhere. Then the constant stream of passengers going and coming adds a rich variety of human interest.

South of Valparaiso the climate grows colder, and as the Magellan Straits are approached, it often becomes wet and stormy. This part of the coast is only served by the home-going steamers of the more usual type, with all the passenger accommodation below. As the decks are often swept from end to end by the seas met with near the Horn, the open-air arrangements of the coast steamers would be obviously impossible.

Between Valparaiso and Cape Horn the coast is far too broken and dangerous for a close approach, so that the steamer's course is far out to sea, and the enjoyment of its beauties are beyond the reach of passengers. However,

anyone wanting to see the lovely country of Southern Chile can easily do so by taking train from Valparaiso right down to Temuco and Valdivia, then once more taking to the sea. There is also a line of German boats which threads the intricacies of the dangerous Smyth's Channel, where the scenery is very fine. The northern part of this channel is a submerged valley, its entrance defended by many sunken peaks, so that navigation is a difficult matter.

From the entry of this channel in the Gulf of Peñas to its exit in the Magellan Straits, a distance of some 360 miles, the open sea is but once visible. The channel lies between the mainland and the closely packed archipelago of islands fringing the coast. Undoubtedly anyone not pressed for time and desirous of seeing as much as possible should take this route. In addition to the very beautiful scenery—quite one of the scenic assets of Chile—a traveller also escapes the severe tossing encountered on the open ocean in this latitude.

Nowhere can one sail in the tropics in greater comfort than on the West Coast of South America. It is never oppressively hot, and one can always be quite comfortable in one's cabin. A blanket is always needed at night and the electric fan is seldom required. There is a cold Antarctic stream which tempers the atmosphere, and, considering the enormous length of coast-line, the climatic changes from the Horn to Panama are remarkably small. Between Panama and Valparaiso there is little change all the year round, though South of that it may be quite sufficiently cold in winter. Inland, of course, it is different; but there is no place along the coast-line or within reach of its tempering breezes, where an ordinary mortal cannot live in health and comfort all the year round.



MAPUCHE GIRLS, CHOLCHOL



KARURUNGI PUPILS AND TEACHERS

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CHAPTER XXVII

THE POST OFFICE AND GOVERNMENT

A Business-like Post Office—Rates of Postage—Employment of Women—Obliging Chilena Post Office Employees—Telegraphs and Telephones—Señor Agustín Edwards on the Chilean Government—Its Stability—Its Richness—The State Debts and Assets—Smallness of Taxation.

The Chilean Post Office system is conducted on excellent, business-like lines. The postage on a letter anywhere in Chilean territory is 5 cents, less than an English penny.

This means that for 5 cents, a letter will be conveyed a distance of say 2,400 miles from Arica, to Punta Arenas. The letters in Santiago, for delivery in the town itself and in some of the other large cities, are delivered for one cent, less than the fifth of a penny, and within the Province, the charge is 2 cents. Newspapers and educational matter are conveyed free, with the result that newspapers and books enjoy an extensive circulation, in proportion to the smallness of the population.

Women are extensively employed in the post office system as postmistresses and clerks. The national characteristic of being desirous to please, is a feature of the educated, obliging Chilenas engaged in various capacities in the Post Office, in marked contrast to the somewhat forbidding and austere damsels who dispense postal orders and stamps in British post offices.

The telegraph system, when one considers the mountains, deserts, rivers and forests that exist in Chile, is a marvel of efficiency and cheapness.

A telegram of twelve words can be dispatched anywhere in Chile for 4d., the address not being charged for.

Telephones are in more frequent use in Chilean than in English cities. An excellent system, linking up the country

districts with the markets, proves itself to be a great boon to agriculturists.

The telephone system is controlled by two British companies, whose stumpy, ugly poles run along the principal streets of Santiago and Valparaiso.

The development of the post office telegraph and telephone systems, along with the rapid increase of the railways, have been largely instrumental in making Chile what she is to-day, a rich, contented, orderly, and progressive country. Wireless stations are now being installed on the coast, and communication with ships in the Pacific maintained.

Students of Chile and its resources would do well to consider the statements recently made by His Excellency Señor Agustin Edwards, the Chilean Minister to Great Britain, at the London Chamber of Commerce. His Excellency said:—

“ Until a short time ago the only thing known about South America was the unfortunate series of revolutions which devastated so many of the smaller republics of that continent, and I can say with a certain pride that we Chileans feel in a position to criticise this European impression, as we have during our independent life been a stable nation, ruled by a constitutional government and enjoying political freedom.

“ I remember a few years ago when visiting a machine factory, I was about to purchase a dynamo for an industrial purpose. The manager, who knew better than myself the kind of machine I needed, warned me from buying one I was ready to take, and said: ‘ This dynamo is not fit for your purpose. It gives, like your South American countries, two thousand revolutions per minute. You want something quieter.’ That man expressed the idea prevailing here, and I only hope that if he has come to this lecture he will see that it is the wheel of progress in South America that is now making two thousand revolutions per minute.

“ When you come to think that in 1913 we shall have

completed in South America a system of railways that will join six South American capitals distant from one another several times the distance which separates the capitals of the extremities of Europe, we must recognise the energy, enterprise and wealth of the South American people, and we must feel a great confidence in its future. The railway from Rio de Janeiro, capital of Brazil, to Asuncion, capital of Paraguay, will by then be finished. To-day Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, Buenos Aires and Santiago de Chile are connected by rails, and my Government expects to have finished by 1913 what is known as the Longitudinal Railway, which is to complete the railway communication between Santiago de Chile and La Paz, the Bolivian capital.

“ It would not be fair if I did not point out to you that in all these enterprises the South American Republics, and particularly Chile, have received the most efficient and generous help of British capital, of British engineers, and that other no less powerful force which has made your great Empire— British confidence in the future of new countries.

“ Mr. Echeverria has told you how the construction of railways has increased seven times as much the value of land in the Argentine Republic. May I say that in Chile it has perhaps increased more still in the last ten years. I remember the time when the hectare of land in our southern provinces scarcely attained ten Chilean dollars. The railway had just reached those lands, and to-day in some of them the value exceeds two hundred Chilean dollars the hectare. May I add that this is only the beginning, as the railways built cannot, of course, reach the whole of these lands !

“ But there is one point to which I wish to call your special attention. Mr. Echeverria has said that Chile has beyond doubt the richest government in Latin-America, and he has spoken the truth. This I will prove in a few words. Chile has an external and an internal debt. The external debt amounts to something like £30,000,000. The internal debt is quite 150,000,000 dollars of 18d. per

dollar, and represents the paper money currency which we have not yet been able to change for gold currency owing to several reasons which would be lengthy of explanation.

“ Now for the 150,000,000 dollars of the internal debt the Chilean Government holds a gold deposit in cash of about one hundred million, kept in European banks—English and German—and nearly fifty million dollars more of mortgage bonds. The one hundred million deposit gains interest of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., and the fifty million mortgage bonds of nearly 7 per cent., and the monies arising from these interests increase every year the deposit. I am not exaggerating when I say the internal debt of Chile is only a nominal one.

“ The external debt of £30,000,000 is entirely due to the investment made by the Chilean Government in public works. Mr. Echeverria has told you that the 1,625 miles of railway in actual working that belong to the State are worth £11,350,000. I can add that the public buildings, piers, telegraphs, etc., owned by the Chilean Government, all of which have been constructed with the monies derived from the loans, are worth £10,000,000 at least, thus reducing the exact amount of what the Chilean Government has spent in the national defence and other expenditure of a financially unremunerative nature to something like £9,000,000.

“ But—and this ‘ but ’ is a big one—there is a revelation to be made which should sound as a fairy tale to your ears in these times of unrecorded taxation. Chile has no taxes to speak of, and holds in its untouched tributary system the biggest and soundest of reserve funds.

“ Chilean taxes could be figured out, I daresay, to-day, at about $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the private income of individuals, and yet the public revenue amounted last year to something like £12,000,000.

“ There is another way to look at our external debt. It has been said that nitrate is one of the corner stones of our credit, and that some day or other the fields which

contain it will be exhausted. You have heard Mr. Echeverria say that our fields have sufficient nitrate for 136 years. Now you know that in thirty years the sinking fund the Chilean Government is paying will extinguish the whole debt. Therefore we can expect to wipe out our external debt at least four times over without touching the reserve fund I have mentioned—namely, of taxation.”

Figures like the above can leave little doubt as to the prosperous era which is opening out for Chile.

CHAPTER XXVIII

MISSION WORK AMONGST THE ARAUCANIANS

Araucanian Indifference to Christianity—Early Jesuit Missions—Araucanian Traditions and Legends—Lost Mines and Forgotten Churches—Jesuit Schools—Toleration of Chilean Government—Salesian Missions in Patagonia—The South American Missionary Society—The Bishop of the Falkland Islands—The Anglican Mission—Temuco—The English Hospital—The Girl's School—Life at Temuco—The Mission Station at Quepe—The School "Fiesta"—Indian Boys at Football—Cholchol—Sports and Games—An Indian Leave-taking—A Day in the Dispensary—Araucanian Evasiveness—Sick Babies—Appreciative Old Indian Ladies.

"The most furious and valiant people in America" to quote Val's description of the Araucanian Indians, are singularly tenacious of their superstitions and observances. Up to now Christianity has made little material progress amongst them.

The Araucanians, as a nation, appear to be completely indifferent to the white man's teaching of a future life, and look down upon his moral code, which they regard as being inferior to their own. In this they have some justification, for, generally speaking, their contact with Europeans has been with extremely undesirable specimens of the white race.

As soon as the Jesuits arrived, in the wake of the Conquistadores, efforts were made to Christianise this savage people. The results were unsatisfactory, although, under the influence of the Jesuits, they acquired some modicum of civilisation, became acquainted with European plants and animals, and improved their methods of agriculture.

The almost constant warfare with the Spaniards prevented the principles of Christianity from making any progress, and they remained almost until to-day, rude, but not barbarous, savages, their original beliefs tinged with legends rather like the faith of Christianity.

A rich harvest is awaiting the student of folk-lore who can gain the confidence of these people, and piece together their traditions. Wild rumours, probably founded upon some sub-structure of fact, exist concerning their knowledge

of hidden or secret mines ; and it is almost certain that they obtain from some secret source the silver which they fashion into ornaments and utensils.

Their country has never been thoroughly explored, and is unknown, even to the Araucanians. Prior to the Spanish Conquest, the population was considerable, perhaps ten times greater than it is at present. Here and there, in the heart of the forest, patches that have once been clearings are found.

Ruins of some mysterious civilisation of the Pre-Inca period, with inscriptions engraved upon the stones, have been discovered, and even forgotten wooden churches erected and abandoned perhaps 300 years ago, with the remnants of apple orchards growing wild around them, have been unexpectedly found by travellers in the forest.

Despite the unfavourable results, missionary enterprise is still active amongst this interesting people. The Jesuits have several missionary stations, and there are schools for boys and girls ; as long experience has shown that if any improvement is to be effected in the condition of the Araucanians, it must be commenced when they are of an early age. Many of these scholars turn out well, and obtain situations with farmers and settlers and eventually intermarry, when their children become Chilenos. Numbers, however, go back to their own people, forget their education, and revert to the customs of their fathers.

The Salesian Fathers minister to the wants of the miserable remnants of the wandering Indian tribes, that still exist in Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego.

In these extensive regions it is supposed that not more than 3,000 aborigines survive, mostly Yaaganes and Ona Indians. They trap foxes and chinchillas, and subsist mainly on shell fish and the flesh of llamas.

The introduction of sheep farms sounded their knell. At first they regarded the sheep as a succulent and innocent variety of llama, and speared them at will. This led to reprisals on the part of the farmers, and it is to be feared that these unsophisticated savages were frequently shot at sight.

Apart from this, the proximity of civilised man proved fatal to them. Their birth rate decreased, the death rate, especially of their children, increased alarmingly.

Consumption carried them off by the score, although until the last few decades it was unknown amongst these savages, who certainly live the open air life, and go entirely unclad, even in the coldest weather !

Missions conducted by the Salesian Fathers have been established amongst them for years. To induce them to adopt even the most primitive methods of civilisation, let alone Christianity, appears to be a hopeless task. In times of intense cold or starvation, they approach the mission station for food, just as, in winter, wild birds frequent the habitations of men, but return to their haunts at the advent of spring. These primitive beings have hardly any beliefs, and neither recognise tribe nor law. A man, usually with two wives, paddles about the coast in a birch bark canoe. They halt for the night at any spot where a cave affords shelter, and the women gather shell fish, which are devoured raw, while the man, with the assistance of his half wild dogs, traps a fox or spears a llama. They only seem to recognise property in fire, and carry carefully about with them on flat stones, smouldering embers, which the women are watchful to keep from expiring. In a dull kind of way, they express gratitude for axes, knives, or boxes of matches, and recognise the Salesian Fathers as their protectors and friends. Regrettable as it may seem, the doom of these primitive people has been pronounced, and in a few years the Aborigines of Patagonia will cease to exist.

Although Roman Catholicism is the State religion, the Chileans, since the establishment of the Republic, have tolerated other forms of Christianity. Chile was the first Latin Republic to permit the public worship of other denominations, and, of late years, the South American Missionary Society has been working amongst the Araucanian Indians.

The following unvarnished account has been given by

one who has had the privilege of seeing the working of many Missions in distant parts of the world.

In Araucania there are three chief centres of Anglican Mission work—Temuco, Quepe and Cholchol. All are admirably situated right in the heart of the Indian country. Temuco is the chief market-town of the whole district and is always swarming with Mapuches (as the Araucanians in this part are called) who come to transact their business and buy their stores. They are not town-dwellers, and their homesteads are all distant from this the nearest point at which the railway touches. But here they come from every part of their vast reservations, and no place could be better chosen for the Head Station of the Mission, which can thus be easily resorted to by all, and itself kept in touch with every district. It is also the centre of the Local Government.

We arrived at Temuco about noon on Friday, 9th December, having come direct by the night train from Santiago. We were met by the Rev C. A. Sadleir, the Superintendent of the Mission, and Dr. Baines, in charge of the English Hospital there, and drove off through choking dust to the Superintendent's house. Nowhere is the dust so troublesome as in Temuco, it is as light and fine as French chalk, and gets in everywhere, and it simply saturates one's clothing. Mrs. Sadleir and her two daughters made us very welcome, as they do everyone who comes within their kindly sphere of influence, and did everything possible to make the visit a happy one.

We had planned to be in Temuco over the Sunday, and to start for the Quepe Station the following Tuesday, so our time was limited, and there was much to do. Many hours were spent every day in the study going into details of the working of the Mission. Between whiles we saw all we could of the other Mission activities, and the town itself. A reception was also held to enable all the English in the town to come and meet the Bishop. The Intendente (Chilean Governor), Mayor, Indian Commissioner, and British Vice-Consul also availed themselves of the invitation.

Besides the Superintendent's house and the church-room, all recently acquired, there is an English hospital and girls' school in Temuco. We spent a good deal of time at the hospital, and have nothing but praise for this excellent little institution so admirably and ably conducted by Dr. and Mrs. Baynes and their small staff of bright and cheerful nurses. The situation is the best in Temuco, on the outskirts of the town, in the highest part, and facing a beautifully wooded hill. The buildings are of wood and iron, of the bungalow type, but all thoughtfully and scientifically arranged and delightfully fresh and cheerful. There is a men's and a women's ward for Indians, and a new wing with most inviting little private rooms for British or Chilean paying patients, by whom it is greatly appreciated and continually used. The Indians are often shy of coming at first, but once in it is sometimes difficult to get rid of them, and they sham sickness in order to be kept on, and are always quite delighted to come a second time. Every day the dispensary is thronged, and the wards are seldom without a good complement of occupants.

There is a delightful garden and orchard, whence fruit and fresh vegetables are gathered for the use of Dr. Baynes' very varied family.

Then there is the girls' school. Never was a seemingly hopeless task more bravely faced and nobly accomplished than that which confronted Mr. Bevis and his daughter on their arrival in Temuco to start an English girls' school. They had been promised good accommodation and all necessary furniture and books, with sufficient funds to start, and they were expected to open school within a fortnight of their arrival. They found a wretched, miserably inadequate, rambling building with scarcely a stick of furniture, not a man to do any work on the place, and hardly a cent for material or labour. The newly-arrived missionary had to put his hand into his own slenderly-lined pocket and to collect funds from his friends at home, and set-to himself to make chairs and tables, desks and apparatus for the immediate necessities of school-life.

Fortunately he is a man of much technical knowledge and mechanical skill, so by dint of hard work and constant application the place was made ready for the children within the time. But it was hardly an encouraging introduction, and many a man—and small blame to him—might have turned back in disgust. Yet in spite of every difficulty the first term of its existence has been made to prove a splendid success. We were present at the prize distribution just before Christmas, and the exhibition the children gave of their work, their gymnastics, calisthenic exercises, recitations, and acting showed the most careful training.

There were some thirty-five children in the school, of whom ten were boarders, and in consequence of the excellent results of the term's work many more have been promised. There is not the smallest doubt that the need of such a school is a very real one, and Chilean, as well as English, parents will be only too thankful to send their children to those whose first care will be, not the mere cramming of bare facts into their heads, but the real moral training and healthy development, both mental and spiritual, of those entrusted to their care.

Temuco itself is a rapidly growing little place. The railway being here naturally attracts business, and it has become the most important market centre of the district. The town is prettily situated amidst wooded hills with a river running at their base. The immediate neighbourhood is very fertile, and every roadway, as it emerges from amongst the houses, is at once bordered by well cultivated fields with every variety of crop. There is a nicely laid out and shady Plaza in the centre of the town round which the Government offices cluster, but the place is very new, and the buildings, for the most part, very ramshackle. The roads are mere apologies; attempts are being made at paving them here and there, still they are appallingly bad even in summer, and a cart need have sound springs for tumbling over their amazing irregularities. The dust too, in dry weather, is a perfect plague, and can hardly be less

trying than the rivers of mud which are the only alternative. All this will be improved in time, the district is prosperous and the town rapidly forging ahead; already the Mission sites bought have considerably increased in value, and it is becoming more and more difficult to secure land.

After a few days at Temuco we drove out to Quepe, situated some ten miles distant. The road passes through most lovely country, reminding one strongly of the English countryside—undulating cornfields, pasture land, trees, hedges, and running streams. Plenty of sunshine and enough rain to keep everything fresh and luxuriant. Once outside the town, the roads in dry weather are not bad and one can roll along at a good lively pace. Some of our party, who started a little later on horseback, were unable to overtake the Mission coach, though cantering and trotting nearly all the way.

We arrived at Quepe a little before sunset. A more perfectly charming situation than that occupied by the Mission Station it would be difficult to imagine. The ground is occupied on both sides of a beautiful river running between deep wooded banks. The girls' school is on one side, the boys' on the other, both placed in the midst of extensive grounds with grassy rolling slopes and shady avenues like some fine old English park. One is far away from the dust and noise, and the twittering of the birds and the cry of happy children's voices are the only sounds which break upon the peaceful calm of our surroundings.

Next morning, as we looked forth from our windows, heaven and earth were bathed in the clear radiance of a cloudless sun. We made an early start and spent nearly the whole day on horseback looking over the extensive farm lands of the Station, and examining all its buildings, machinery, and equipment for the industrial work. We were simply amazed to find so much splendid material and such ample provision for every kind of farm industry simply going to rack and ruin for want of workers and support. Those on the spot have their hands more than

full in their own particular departments. Indeed, each and all seem to have laid on them the work of two or three, and it is all they can do to keep things going at all in anything like an efficient manner. The boys' and girls' schools are both understaffed, and Mr. Bullock, for the moment in charge of the Station, is more than fully occupied with his specialized work of instruction in agriculture and the general superintendence of the farm lands. Helpers are wanted everywhere, not only in the school-rooms and the farm, but there are saw-mills, carpenter's shop, blacksmith's shop, all well stocked with materials and machinery, but lying almost totally idle for lack of someone to look after them. There are innumerable beehives—but this industry is falling off rapidly for want of attention, there is a poultry yard, once full of birds, now neglected, and the flower gardens are to-day little better than a luxuriant tangle. There are hundreds of acres of land all round only partially worked, and much of it still uncleared. There is a great church unfinished, and with practically nothing being done, yet which might be made ready for use in a few weeks. A bridge also has been begun spanning the river and connecting the two portions of the Mission premises: here again all the material is to hand but the work is at a standstill for lack of a few pounds.

We were present at the school "Fiesta" at the end of the year. One entire day was taken up with sports, gymnastic performances, physical drill, an open-air concert, a football match, and the distribution of certificates. The children's work and exercises, both boys' and girls', were wonderfully good, far better than we had dared to expect with such a shortage of teachers. We were glad, too, to see with what zest and vigour they enter into the sports and games. The boys held their own splendidly in the football match against a much heavier team made up of the teachers and the Chilean farm hands and servants, all keen on what has now become almost a national game.

The following morning, after a special service and admirable parting address by the Superintendent, all

went off with their beds and bundles to their Indian homes for the Christmas holidays.

Time was pressing, and though we should have greatly loved to linger in the midst of these beautiful and peaceful woodland scenes, we had to push on. We set out from Quepe on Saturday, 17th December, for a thirty-mile drive to Cholchol, the last of the Mission Stations to be visited. The country everywhere was beautiful, and the roads, for the most part, good, rather knobbly and rough through the forests, and with some awkward turns and twists in the valleys and ravines, but on the uplands, where we travelled the greater part of the way, in dry weather driving is simple enough. Several times the river was crossed in a ferry, and once had to be forded, but though we got many shocks, we arrived without accident after some five hours on the road.

Cholchol is a little town in the midst of a big rolling plain, of quite a different character from Quepe, and not nearly so pretty. The Mission house and accommodation are also much poorer, though there are many more children. There have been this past term fifty-three boy and twenty-three girl scholars. Besides boarders, there are day scholars, bringing the total number up to nearly two hundred.

The quarters for boys and girls are on opposite sides of a broad road. The girls' house has been but recently built almost entirely with funds collected by one of the lady missionaries when home for her furlough. It is a very nice complete little building, and the little family of Mapuce girls are very happy and well cared-for there.

We passed a Sunday at Cholchol, and were present at the Baptism of a considerable number of Indians, both adults and children. A Confirmation was also held in the evening when some dozen candidates were presented to the Bishop for the laying-on of hands. The church-room was packed with Indians and some Chileans, and it was terribly hot and stifling. The services were in Spanish, as was also the Special Celebration of the Holy Communion for the newly-confirmed held the following morning.

Here, again, we were just in time for the breaking-up festivities. Sports and games were held in the afternoon, followed by a picnic in a wooded glen in which all the children took part with huge enjoyment. In the evening there was a big gathering in the school-room, when Indian games and representations preceded the distribution of certificates by his lordship the Bishop.

Next morning, after a farewell service, the boys and girls began to disperse for the holidays. It was a gay and busy scene in and about the Mission grounds. Many of the parents had come to fetch their children, some on horses, some in ox-carts, and others on foot. The men in brightly-coloured ponchos and with gay trappings to their horses, the women in their simple picturesque dress adorned with many and curious silver ornaments, were all bustling about helping the children load up their bedding, which they always bring with them, and their other belongings. There was many a sad and tearful leave-taking, especially amongst the girls, for these little people have warm and affectionate hearts, and to part from teachers and friends for even a few short weeks is a sore trial to them.

We ourselves set out the same day on the return journey to Temuco, some riding, others driving. It was a perfect day, and the country looked beautiful. Our road was a very hilly one, but most of the way along higher ridges, whence splendid views were obtained of the rich, well-cultivated, and well-wooded country smiling in the sunshine.

The Araucanian Mission, however, like many similar enterprises, appears to be hampered by want of funds, a defect that will doubtless be remedied when the importance of the work it is doing is realised by the British residents in Chile.

Mr. W. Wilson gives the following interesting account of dispensing medicines to the Araucanians at Cholchol:—

“The dispensary hours are from ten a.m. to twelve noon, but long before the hour to open, especially in the summer, patients arrive. Very often about seven a.m. one is greeted

with the salutation 'lawen,' and straightway an aggrieved face if the request is not complied with at once. But in order to make clearer what I am about to say let me, following the example of the novelist who generally describes first the house of the heroine, with its romantic surroundings, before plunging into the story proper, give you an idea of what our dispensary is like. There will be no need to ransack the dictionary to find suitable adjectives to describe it withal; in conformity with the rest of our Mission Building it is simplicity itself. First, then, we have a little waiting-room with a corner screened off at one end to serve as a dressing and operating room for minor operations such as pulling teeth, opening abscesses, etc. The waiting room communicates by a door with the consulting room, part of which is partitioned off as a drug room. The *modus operandi* is by no means difficult of comprehension; the patients assemble in the waiting room, although in good weather many prefer to remain in the corridor outside. Usually by ten o'clock there will be several people waiting, sometimes only a few, other times quite a number.

"The patients are admitted one by one to the consulting room, those who have wounds to dress go behind the curtain and are attended to by Nurse Hegarty. When the patient enters the consulting room, first and foremost the name is asked to be put down in the case book, and strange to say the answer is not always such a simple matter as one might imagine. If the patient is a Mapuche, especially a woman, she will look around in a confused manner, and whisper something to her husband or father or whoever happens to be with her. After a more or less lengthy pause she will say in a most diffident tone of voice, 'Juana' or some other such common name. She is then asked 'Juana, what? What is your surname?' Another still more lengthy consultation, and then 'Antonio.' But the objection is raised that is not a surname. 'What is your father's name?' 'Antonio pu,' and there the matter stands. The difficulty is that a name and a surname are altogether out of keeping with Indian ideals; all



A MOUNTAIN STREAM

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W. H. C. B.
ALBERTA

Indians rejoice in a name of some kind to distinguish them from their fellows, but it is singular a 'Six Tigers,' or a 'Blue Snake,' or a 'Blackfoot' does not rejoice in another name as well. Hence the civilised custom of having two or three names is most confusing to the Indian mind, as is also the custom that all the children should bear the surname of their father.

"After this preliminary is over the 'medico' does not plunge himself into another abyss by asking the lady's age, as he knows by experience that it would be a useless procedure, and so puts it down at more or less what he thinks reasonable, and the lady does not object for the simple reason that she cannot read what has been put down; if she could things might be different. But now comes the crucial point, to find out what is the matter with her. There is no lack of words now. As is usual with most people (I had nearly said with most of the fair sex), her volubility is surprising when she begins to speak of her ailments. The 'medico' has to feel her pulse, look at her tongue, palpate very carefully the place where the pain is, and look very serious or else the medicine would have no effect. Finally she is presented with a prescription which she has to take round to another door and have it dispensed by Nurse Hegarty, and then the 'medico' chuckles as he hears the nurse telling her she must pay a dollar for the medicine, 'Nielai plata, cuninal inche, munna weda pinque nieimi' (I have no money, I am very poor, you have a bad heart) is the response. After a short discussion the ultimatum goes forth, if you don't pay you cannot have the medicine; then slowly, very slowly, a hand steals into her bosom and out comes a dirty handkerchief with a knot tied in one corner, and as likely as not the very poor lady takes out a roll of bills, and very reluctantly hands over the dollar, amid renewed protestations of poverty.

"Our next patient is an old Chilean, who, when asked for his name says with great astonishment, 'why you have got my name, I was here five years ago,' and does not understand why he should be asked for it again, and then he

likewise goes into the question of his infirmities with an infinite variety of detail, beginning with a certain time that he got his feet wet fifteen years ago, since when he has not been the same man, and then follows the minute history of all the coughs and colds, pains and aches he has had since, but omitting altogether to tell about the number of times he has been on the spree for weeks on end, and how often he has slept out because he was too drunk to find his way home. When these and a few other irregularities have been wormed out, his ailments, with the causes thereof and all pertaining thereunto, have become somewhat more intelligible, he then gets his prescription, and before leaving is asked if he can read, and in all probability the answer is, 'No, Señor, but I have a son (or a daughter) at home who can,' and he gets a leaflet or a gospel to take with him.

"Our next patient belongs to the never-ending class of sick babies, its mother comes in with it carefully wrapped up in a shawl, or, if a Mapuche, in the 'copulwe' (cradle), and the usual recital begins of vomiting, diarrhœa, and wasting away; the wretched, puny little thing looks like a few small bones with some dried parchment stretched over them. The first question is 'how long has it been ailing?' 'Oh! for two or three months' is the reply. 'And why didn't you come for medicine sooner?' 'Oh! because I thought from day to day it would begin to mend, and we live a long way off.' The next question, 'on what do you feed it?' is an almost needless one because the answer is always more or less the same, 'cualquiera cosa' (anything that is going), and so the poor little mite, which perhaps started off handicapped with a weak digestion, goes under before reaching the first milestone on life's highway.

"These poor victims of injudicious feeding are the despair of the medical man, for the simple reason that in nine cases out of ten he cannot control the diet, and the mixtures or powders might as well be thrown into the slop pail for all the good they do the unfortunate sufferer. The mother receives much good counsel about feeding her baby which in all probability will not be carried out, and she goes off

contented with a prescription, no doubt she will give the medicine more or less regularly, but the more important part of the directions she will calmly ignore, either through indifference or because she reasons as follows: 'My mother and grandmother brought up their babies just as I am doing, why should I change? Those doctors are full of fads and fancies and newfangled ideas.'

"Our next patient is an old lady, a habitual attender, and she sits down with an 'I feel at home sort of air,' and begins her discourse, 'Ay, Señor, the last bottle of medicine you gave me did me so much good, the first spoonful I took I began to feel better, and now I feel quite well except for one little pain here,' indicating a certain spot in her back, 'won't you give me just one bottle more, so that I may get rid of that little pain?' And of course she gets her medicine and turns up again in a week with the pain in another place.

"She reminds me of a certain old lady who had such faith in the medicine she got at the dispensary, that though she had been told to take a tablespoonful three times a day, she took seven tablespoons right away so as to get better sooner. But now I believe the recital must draw to a close; there are still several other patients waiting, but we need not go into further details; suffice it if we have been able to draw a sort of word-picture of a day's work in the dispensary in Cholchol; and please remember that although the picture may be printed in the lighter colours, there is much of terrible suffering and misery, for the portrayal of which the darkest colours might well be used."

Strange it is indeed to find such primitive ideas amongst the people to whose ancestors' knowledge we are indebted such indispensable drugs as quinine and colchicum.

CHAPTER XXIX

PATAGONIA AND ITS SHEEP FARMS

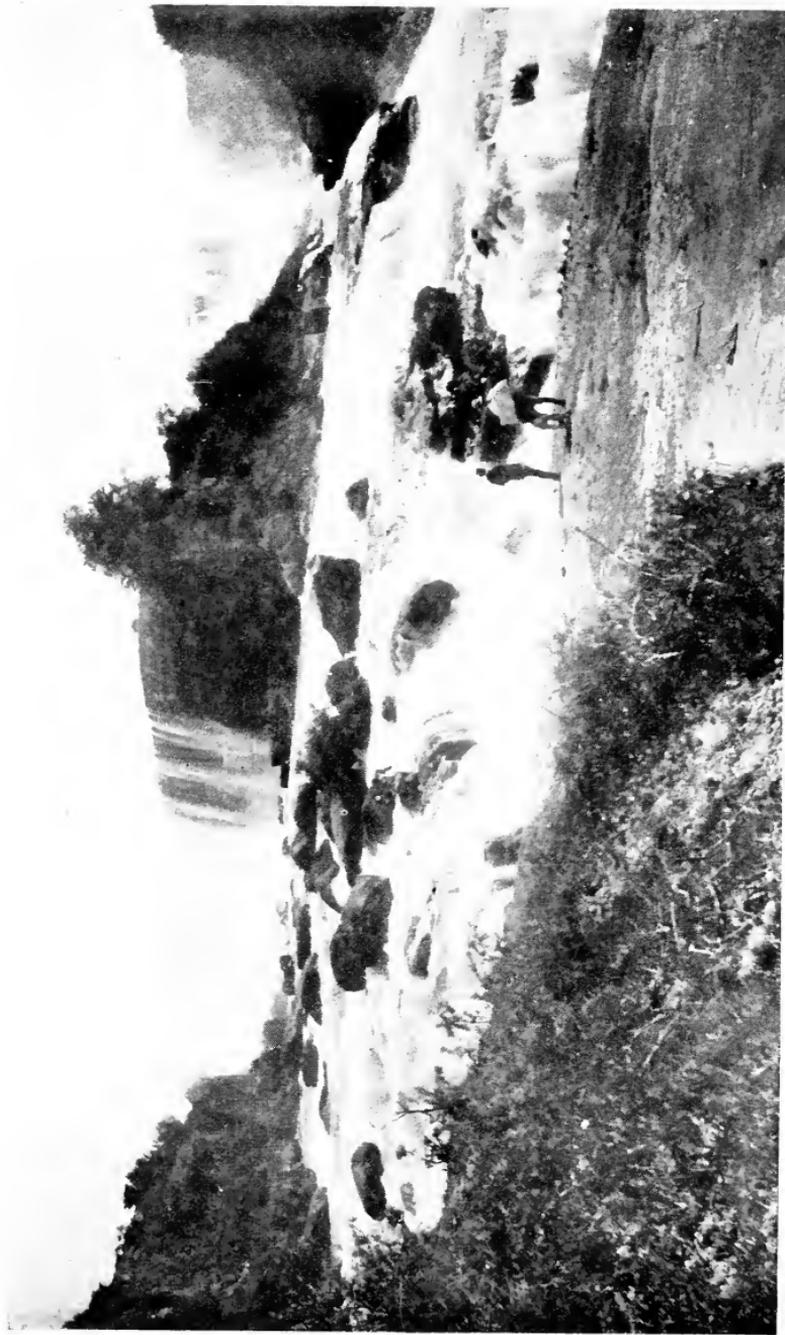
Discovery of Patagonia by Magellan—Its Name—Captain Pedro Sarmiento—Drake and the English Pirates—The Lost City of Treasure—The First Colony in Patagonia—Miserable Fate of the Colonists—The Giant Sloth—Convict Settlement of 1843—Jose Miguel Cambiaso—The Convict Rising—Punta Arenas—Its Amazing Growth—Phenomenal Increase of Sheep—British Capital—Sheep Farms—A Day's Lamb-marking in Patagonia.

The great territory known as Patagonia, which extends from about 40° south latitude to the Strait of Magellan, may be said, in its natural features, greatly to resemble Norway. It includes an area of upwards of one hundred thousand square miles.

South of the Strait lies Tierra del Fuego, and innumerable small islands, which until sheep farming, on an extensive scale, was introduced by Scotch and Welsh Colonists, were regarded as valueless, and were abandoned to a few miserable Indians, who subsisted mainly on shell fish. Patagonia, which is derived from *patagones*, "people with big feet," was so named by Magellan, who in 1520 was impressed by the abnormal size of the footprints, he saw on the sands of the sea-shore, when he first landed.

Thirty-three years later, Captain Francisco de Ulloa was ordered to explore this region by Pedro de Valdivia. Later on Captain Pedro Sarmiento records that "for our sins, some English pirates passed through the straits of the Mother of God, formerly called the Strait of Magellan, into the South Sea under the command of Francisco Drac, a native of Plymouth, a man of low condition, but a skilful seaman and a valiant pirate."

Only those who have passed through the fierce hurricanes and blinding storms of sleet and snow that beset the Straits of Magellan and the desolate realms of Southern Patagonia, can have any conception of the awful dangers to which Drake's comparatively frail barks were exposed. Not



FALLS ON THE LAJA RIVER NEAR LOS ANGELES

less terrible, in that year 1578, were the terrors that imagination conjured up, as awaiting those who dared to violate the sanctity of nature's secret places. Undeterred, nevertheless, "Drake boldly entered the straits. Then from the towering snow cones, and threatening glaciers that guarded the entry the tempests swept down upon the daring intruders. Out of the tortuous gulfs that through the bowels of the fabulous Austral continent seemed to lead beyond the confines of the world, rude squalls buffeted them this way and that, and currents, the like of which no man had seen, made as though they would dash them to pieces in the fathomless depths where no cable would reach. Fires lit by the natives on the desolate shores as the strangers struggled by, added the terrors of unknown magic. But Drake's fortitude and consummate seamanship triumphed over all, and in a fortnight he brought his ill-sailing ships in triumph out upon the Pacific. Then, as though maddened to see how the adventurers had braved every effort to destroy them the whole fury of the fiends that guarded the South Seas' slumber, rushed howling upon them. Hardly had the squadron turned northward than a terrific gale struck and hurled it back. The sky was darkened, and the bowels of the earth seemed to have burst, and for nearly two months they were driven under bare poles to and fro without rest in latitudes where no ship had ever sailed. On the maps the great Austral continent was marked, but they found in its place an enchanted void, where wind and water and ice and darkness, seemed to make incessant war.*

In consequence of Drake's exploit, Philip of Spain, whose beard he had so successfully singed, by sailing up and plundering the coast towns of Chile and Peru and capturing numerous treasure ships, ordered the Straits to be fortified and a colony formed at the Cape of Virgins, close to where the modern city of Punta Arenas, or Sandy Point now stands.

The colony consisted of 400 men and 15 women. The

* Corbett's "Drake," p. 77.

natives, upon whom they depended for fish and guanaco flesh, after a time became unfriendly to them, and at the approach of winter, the Indians deserted the neighbourhood and trekked northwards after the retreating herds of guanaco and llamas. For two years the wretched Colonists starved on shellfish and berries, until, in 1587, Sir Thomas Cavendish arrived with his ships, as is duly recorded by the Hakluyt Society, and carried off the eighteen survivors, of whom three were women, of the four hundred and fifteen unfortunates!

From time to time, during the next two centuries, explorers and trading ships frequently visited this territory. A story of an inland Eldorado, grew up about the period of Sarmiento's voyage. It was believed that somewhere "far from view" in the interior of Patagonia, Peruvian refugees from the cruelty of the Conquistadores had built a city "as rich as ancient Nineveh," known as "The City of the Cæsars." It was said to be situated somewhere in the neighbourhood of Lake Llanquihue and hosts of adventurers, the ancestors of modern speculators, hastened to the inhospitable wilds of Patagonia, in search of this city of treasure.

The result was that the Patagonian Coast became infested with "Gentlemen of Fortune" and their ships. Failing to discover this hidden treasure city, they sailed through the Straits into the Pacific, careened and re-victualled their ships with goat's flesh and penguins at Juan Fernandez, a favourite rendezvous for pirates, and laid in wait for the Spanish vessels that were returning with the gold and silver from the mines of Peru and Chile.

Improbable as this story appears, the interior of Patagonia was so little known that its truth was not considered impossible. Only recently, it was believed that the Giant Sloth still lingered in the interior, and the *Daily Express* despatched an expedition a few years ago in search of the monster whose remains are so plentiful in Patagonia.

No attempt, however, was made to Colonise Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego, the climate being considered too

bleak and inhospitable. Darwin regarded it as a hopeless land. This was generally believed until in 1843 a convict settlement was formed at Punta Arenas by the Chilean Government. Two years later, the convicts mutinied under a formidable scoundrel named Jose Miguel Cambiaso. This worthy, a mixture of Captain Kidd, Dick Turpin, and Charles Peace, headed a rising of convicts, murdered the Governor, Munoz Gamero, proclaimed himself ruler, boldly announced that "at sea he was a pirate, on land a highwayman," and for some months succeeded in maintaining his independence. He captured some ships, and even went so far as to murder and torture some seamen who resisted him.

There were four hundred Chilean colonists in the neighbourhood, and a number of Indians. Cambiaso who, like the pirates of old, adopted the "Jolly Roger" as his ensign, perpetrated most horrible cruelties on these inoffensive people, and doubtless looked forward to a rich harvest to be derived from systematically wrecking the steamers that passed through the straits. Fortunately, after a debauch of villainy, Cambiaso was captured by Government troops, conveyed to Valparaiso, and shot. The convicts were dispersed to various prisons, and since then the town of Punta Arenas has enjoyed a career of continuous and progressive prosperity.

In 1848 a serious attempt was made to open up Patagonia and ~~Tierra del Fuego~~. Punta Arenas became the capital of the Magellan Territory in 1852, and Government buildings, a hospital, churches, piers and harbour works were rapidly erected. At first Punta Arenas depended mainly on being a port of call for steamers passing through the Strait, but now it owes its prosperity chiefly to sheep. In 1878, there were 185 sheep in the whole territory of Megallanes. Sixteen years later the number had increased to 700,000, and there were 60,000 head of cattle. Now there are upwards of four million sheep and a quarter of a million of cattle. Ten years ago, the population of Punta Arenas, the world's most

southerly town, was under 5,000, to-day it is over 12,000, and is rapidly growing. The town has an excellent water supply, it is lighted with electric light, has a fine library, and up-to-date municipal theatre, schools, and magnificent public buildings.

Owing to the amount of British capital that is sunk in sheep farming, English, or rather Scotch, is commonly spoken, and in that cold, cloudy climate, the grim Scotch shepherds, who are so frequently met with, scarcely seem to have been transplanted from their native Caledonia.

Amongst the English companies may be mentioned the Patagonian Sheep Farming Company, the Tierra del Fuego Sheep Farming Company. The Glencross and the Phillips Bay Companies own between them many millions of acres.

In Patagonia, a sheep requires from two to three acres for grazing. The short tussock grass grows all the year round, and owing to the coldness of the climate, the wool is the longest and finest in the world.

Scotch shepherds are loud in their praise of the conditions that prevail in Patagonia; and life on a sheep farm presents many charms. A Magellan sheep farmer has written the following account of lamb-marking, one of the principal events of the year on the farms:—

“ We had been gathering sheep since the dawn, and now in the small hours of the morning were drawing hourly nearer our objective. Thanks in a great measure to the regularity of the lambs, which were remarkably strong and well-grown, our task had been a comparatively easy one. Our one anxiety was that the corrals ahead of us would be emptied some time before our arrival. ‘ How many ewes have we in this point, do you think, sir ? ’ asked one of the six shepherds with me. ‘ Some 2,000 I should say, with about ninety per cent. of lambs,’ I replied.

“ My shepherd, a shock-haired, red-bearded Scotchman, sucked his pipe thoughtfully. ‘ If ther’ ar na’ twa thousand lambs i’ the pointee I’ll lose a month’s wages.’ ‘ I hope so, Mac,’ I replied good humouredly; ‘ although it wouldn’t be safe to bet on it.’ A few minutes later we had galloped

round and instructed the other men to draw the sheep together by degrees.

A mile or so ahead of us a large lagoon reflected the sun like polished silver, while upon the lee side of the califate bushes which bordered it, two large tents flapped in the morning breeze. There was a delightful freshness in the air, and after our four hours' 'rodeo' we were feeling inconsolably hungry. As we drew nearer and observed the thin curl of smoke rising from the cook's fire, it seemed to us that the smell of breakfast was being wafted down upon the breeze.

The tedious part of our work had been accomplished, but we knew from experience that the portion which would most try our stock of patience lay directly ahead of us. At the moment we were conjecturing as to the time it would take to put the sheep into the pens.

Gradually a long semi-circle of men drew out the nets upon our flank as we approached, and at a sign from the manager lay down upon the grass. The sheep were now being drawn well together, and the noise was deafening. The hoarse cries of the shepherds to the dogs, however, were quite audible amid all the clamour. As the leading points of sheep came within hearing of their fellows already in the corrals, they rapidly strung out towards them, and our work at this juncture was to press forward the bulk of the flock as quickly as circumstances would permit. The men rapidly closed round our flank with the nets, shouting and waving their ponchos to frighten within the encircling fold any points of lambs which threatened to break away. Everything seemed so to be going as well as the proverbial marriage bell. But alas! "L'homme propose et Dieu dispose." A young untrustworthy collie, which had been tied up near the tent by its careful owner, here managed to slip its collar, and racing round our extended flank chased a lamb into the flock scattering the bewildered sheep right and left. A hoarse volley of squib-like language and the instant breaking up and stampede of the startled sheep followed this performance. In the confusion which

ensued the large number of mismothered lambs broke away in hundreds, notwithstanding the frantic efforts of experienced men and some very pretty work by two or three well-trained collies, all to no purpose. "Let the sheep back again," roared the manager, now purple in the face: "and let somebody shoot that interesting pup as soon as possible."

But the man had already galloped or run back in extended order, and a full quarter of a mile of ground had been lost. A young farm cadet, full of the generous enthusiasm of youth, here seeks to perform wonders by riding the life out of his horse. A volley of execration follows him, and he speedily discovers that the work in hand is neither polo nor pig-sticking. Abashed and humiliated he rides up to an old shepherd. 'What makes these lambs break away like that?' he enquires. 'Because they have got long tails, sonny,' is the laconic reply. But the old ewes have keen motherly instincts, and at this juncture are racing back, bleating piteously, to find their offspring. Gradually the sheep are drawn together again, more nets and some long pieces of canvas are brought out, and the sheep are slowly but surely driven within touch of the long mango of hemp netting which extends out from the pens. The men circle round upon the other side with spare nets, and, although a few isolated lambs break away, so far as we are concerned the day is won.

Now we feel we can enjoy rest and repose for a few minutes, and seized with a common impulse hasten towards the 'alfresco' breakfast which awaits us, out of the dust and the clamour. A sturdy old veteran rides up to the cook: 'Look here, Jim! If I catch you feeding that slut of mine again I'll——' But the cook waves a soup-ladle in mock defiance. 'it's your own fault, sonny—you don't know 'ow to work a dog anyhow—not for nuts—although yair a crack Scotch shepherd. Hand her over to me, Sandy, and I'll make a dog of her for ye.' But the cook is an important person, and there is no time for quarrelling. With almost ununseemly haste we swallow the good meal

prepared for us, and loll back and smoke, discussing the events of the morning. This done, we moved sedately towards the pens, and the business of lamb-marking commences.

In a description of this kind there is much we must perforce omit. We have no intention of entering into vexed polemics concerning cross-breeding, the determination of sex, climatic influences regarding the different breeds of sheep, or, indeed, any of those eternal problems which continually puzzle the mind of the stock-owner. In the hope of interesting some of our readers we have touched merely the picturesque.

“At the side of the marking board are two large tins, into which the tails are thrown as they are cut off. The men employed ‘marking’ or ‘cutting’ move swiftly to and fro, as the hoarse cries of the men who hold up the lambs to be operated upon indicate this side or that. Owing to the special care which must be observed, it is scarcely necessary to remark that expert men are chosen. Otherwise the mortality would be considerable. The larger lambs are treated with terebene balsam which is supposed to allay inflammation. The best lambs are apparently about three weeks old, submit quietly to the operation, and suffer but little after-effects. Given a good staff of men and favourable weather, any number of lambs ranging from 1,000 to 3,000 per diem, may be successfully operated upon.

“Of course, it is not work which appeals to the tyro. The men engaged in it are in a short while hardly recognisable through the blood and dust which covers them. But cheerfulness invariably prevails, and the work goes ahead with mechanical precision.”

CHAPTER XXX

HOW CHILE SPENDS ITS SUNNY SUNDAYS AND CHRISTMAS DAY

Sunday a Day of Enjoyment rather than Rest—Low Masses—Drives—Seaside Resorts—Dresses—Vina Del Mar—The Races—Pari Mutuel—The Night—Christmas Day in a Semi-Tropical Garden—The Children's Christmas.

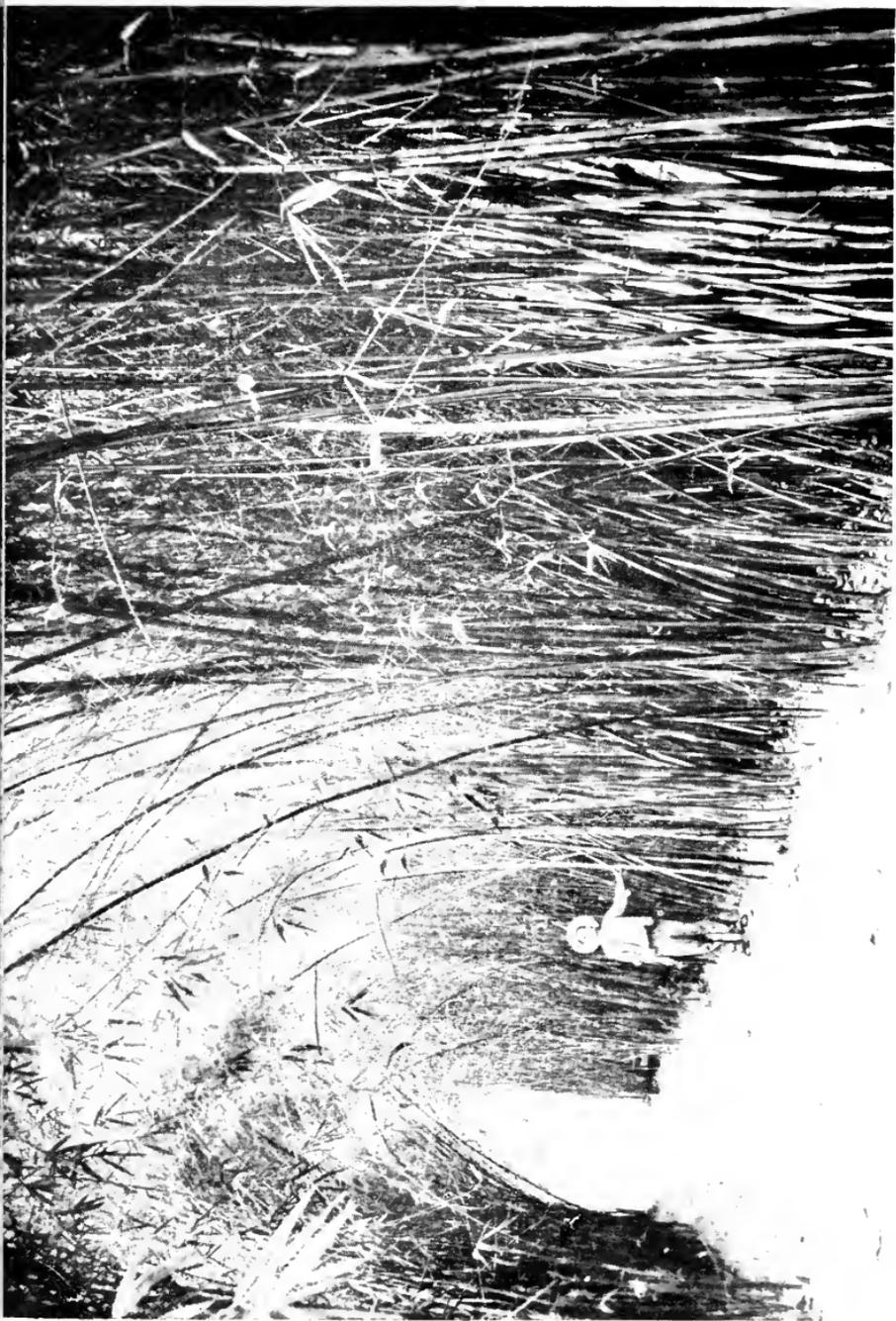
Sunday in Chile is by no means a day of rest. In the large towns, as in England, many of the shops remain open until after mid-day, and Sunday itself is regarded by all sections of the population, as being a day of enjoyment rather than of devotion and repose.

Needless to say, all female Chile goes to Mass. From early morn until noon, there is a succession of Low Masses, which take less than half an hour to celebrate, going on in all the Churches, which are crowded with devout Chilenas, swathed in their mantas.

Outside, the streets are crowded with flower and fruit vendors, hawkers and peddlars of all descriptions; and, despite their prohibition by the police, numerous games of chance are played, when the official eye is not watchful, one being a game which consists in pulling a certain coloured straw out of a bundle which a man holds in his hand, the competitors paying a fee for the privilege, and the winner receiving a prize.

The better class Chileans, attired faultlessly in high hats and frock coats, take drives into the country, while their wives, daughters, and sweethearts, having fulfilled their religious obligations by attending Mass, have doffed the democratic *manta* and donned the latest creations in hats and costumes newly imported from Paris.

The Chilenas look very charming and coquettish as they drive along. In the neighbourhood of Santiago automobiles are common, but unfortunately the dust that they raise on the dry, sun scorched roads, soon envelopes the



CANARERAL DE QUILA—PLANTATION OF QUILA CANE



gay attire of the ladies in a coat of grey grit, which results in the milliners' and modistes' calling being an extremely lucrative one in Chile.

On the coast towns steamship trips are the rule.

One of the principal pleasure resorts of Chile, Vina del Mar, a suburb of Valparaiso, is crowded every Sunday during the summer months by holiday makers, determined to make the most of the day, for, be it remembered, there is no Saturday half holiday in Chile, as in England, and that even in offices controlled by English capital, the employees, British and Chilean alike, frequently work half a day on Sundays, and not infrequently, all day, as a matter of course.

Vina del Mar, the Vine of the Sea, which, if you are English, you may call the Brighton of Chile; if French, the Trouville of Chile; and, if Chilean, the Versailles of Chili—for reasons which we are unable to fathom—is a charming little town, forming, with its baths, and pretty gardens and villas, one of the most delightful residential places in the country.

Even a group of Chileno workmen, who are discussing a vexed question of economics, with a zealous propagandist of Marxian Socialism, look, and feel, happy. Happiness, in fact, lives in the Chilean atmosphere. Discontent vents itself in anger, like a summer thunderstorm in that favoured land; it never assumes the form of the chronic misery, which is as much a feature of our English life, as the interminable, drab drizzles of our climate.

After lunch occurs the great event of the day—the races.

Everyone, Chileans and English alike, proceed to the Cancha. Some go on foot, others drive, but, judging from the crowds, every man, woman, and child in Vina finds his or her way to the Cancha. On the race days, the ladies in their marvellous hats and Paris gowns look like blooms in an exotic flower garden, an impression that is heightened by the cosmetics and scents they so lavishly use.

Itinerant minstrels, and players on the national guitar, abound ; all the familiar features of an English race course are present, save the bookmakers and the "boys." Betting in Chile is conducted by the *pari mutuel* as in France ; and the profits go to the upkeep of the municipalities or the Government Fund.

Apparently everyone bets, but the stakes are very trifling, it being extremely rare for even well to do Chileans to stake more than ten or twenty pezos on a race.

The last race is the signal for a general exodus to the railway station, and the motors and vehicles rapidly disappear in the dust laden roads.

Now is the time for family reunions. Many of the English residents attend evensong at the Anglican churches, at Vina del Mar or Valparaiso, but there are others, who, like the Chileans, prefer to wind up the day at the opera or at a picture palace.

The clubs, of course, are crowded, and gay throngs promenade the beautiful parks and piazzas, in the various towns, listening to the excellent military bands. Thus passes Sunday in Chile, a day as unlike the typical British Sabbath as can well be imagined.

Christmas, in Chile, occurs at midsummer and as far as climatic conditions are concerned, is utterly dissimilar to Christmas in England.

It is not generally kept as a holiday in Chile, although the British community contrive to keep up the festival, in as much like the English manner, as circumstances will allow.

During the greater part of one Christmas day we spent in Chile, we were seated in the shade of some palm trees, that grew in our host's semi-tropical garden. The air was heavy with the perfume of flowers. Gaudy butterflies flitted lazily from flower to flower in striking contrast to the energetic, vicious wasps which appeared to be in a perpetual hurry.

The younger members of the family, who by the way had never seen England, and had extraordinary ideas concerning the prevalence of frost and fog in the old country,

sang hymns and carols, and evinced great curiosity as to the mysterious proceedings which were taking place in the nursery from which, for the time, they had been excluded.

At length we were told that all was ready, and the happy youngsters bounded into the house and up stairs, to find a darkened room where decorations of holly and mistletoe, made, alas, of tin, intermixed with native green boughs decorated with frosting, sparkled in the light of myriads of coloured candles, which gleamed from the branches of a giant Christmas tree. Of course Santa Claus had brought toys galore, and for the moment the illusion was complete. This was rapidly shattered, however, when we returned to the garden and plucked peaches, the aroma of which not even an old-fashioned Christmas dinner, later in the day, could entirely banish from our minds.

CHAPTER XXXI

FIRE: THE PERIL OF THE NITRATE DISTRICT

Timber Towns—A Roadway on Fire—Unscrupulous Oficina Owners—Defrauding Insurance Companies—The Bomberos or Chilean Firemen—A Fire at the Works—The Rev. W. S. Bowden's Experiences—How the Conflagration was Mastered—Lack of Excitement—Casualties—A Baby Missing.

It is difficult to imagine the utter aridness of the Tarapacu desert, where the principal oficinas, or nitrate works, are situated. Fire is, in consequence, one of the chief perils attendant on the nitrate industry. Imagine a land where it never rains; where there is absolutely no shade from the pitiless rays of a tropical sun, and conceive a number of small towns constructed entirely of timber, inhabited by careless and none too sober workmen and their families, and you will have some idea of the dangers of fire, that exist in a nitrate town.

In this waterless land, extraordinary as it may seem, even the roadways catch fire.

It sounds fairly impossible to imagine an ordinary-looking, unmade, earthy road burning, yet such is the soil of the nitrate districts of Northern Chile that this is no uncommon occurrence. A hot cinder dropped on the roadway will sometimes be sufficient to start the business, and the fire will spread along and under the soil, bursting out at intervals, and it is often no easy matter to overcome it, or to be sure when the underground combustion thus started is altogether stayed. This, however, bad though it be, is not so serious as the danger to the wooden houses, which are almost as inflammable as gunpowder. Even the side walks are in many instances constructed of timber; consequently should a fire unfortunately break out, houses, side walks, and roadway may be blazing all at the same time. Fires do burst out continually; no one

can stay in a nitrate town for many days without witnessing a larger or smaller conflagration. These are not always the result of mere accident.

Some oficina proprietors are not over-burdened with scruples or possessed of a too sensitive conscience, and it may appear to them that when, owing to the trusts formed by the big companies, the small works are not paying, the best way of turning over a new leaf and making a fresh start in life is to make a clean sweep of the past by a providential fire, and then to claim damages from the insurance company. British companies, as may be expected, are getting very chary of this kind of gentleman, and fullest enquiries and investigations are now made before accepting such risks, and then at pretty high premiums. The Chilean companies seem hardly yet alive to the danger they incur from the operations of "fire bugs," as these gentlemen are termed in the U.S.A., or are too careless to take proper precautions, despite the repeated failures of fire insurance companies in Chile.

The general public are sufficiently alive to their own risks, and it is quite the thing to be a bombero, as the fireman is called. British residents as well as Chileans take their parts in the Volunteer Fire Brigades which are a feature of every large oficina.

There are plenty of bomba stations, and the men are very well drilled in their work. Often after business hours the bomberos may be seen racing along the streets dragging their light hand engines, smartly making the necessary connections with their hose-piping, and squirting a few gallons of water into the air to test the mains. And at an actual fire they are not backward. The Rev. W. S. Bowden, Chaplain to the Bishop of the Falkland Isles, gives the following spirited description of a fire in a nitrate town:—

"One night, about ten o'clock, he heard the fire bells clashing, and skipping up to the roof Mr. Bowden saw a great conflagration close at hand. In company with many others, the scene of the fire was soon reached. It was a grand sight, half a block of small wooden shanties were

blazing furiously, the heat was intense, and night was turned into day by the brilliancy of the flames.

“ The bomberos were there and at work long before we arrived, swarming like flies on the outskirts of the doomed buildings. To save them was impossible, so all their energies were turned on the adjacent buildings as yet unattacked by the flames, and tons of water were poured over the blistering walls, if haply by this means the progress of the destroying element might be stayed.

“ Fortunately there was no wind, so it was comparatively easy to keep the fire within limits once they were fully at work. The whole thing was like a flash in the pan; the houses burnt like tinder, making a furious blaze for the space of perhaps half an hour or so, and then died down exhausted. At the earliest possible moment the bomberos were swarming over the smoking roofs of the outlying premises fighting the flames inch by inch. Far into the night they worked quenching the smouldering embers, a source of considerable danger in case of a sudden wind arising; but from the onlookers' point of view the whole thing was over within the hour. It was easy to see from the conduct of the crowd in the streets that such outbreaks are an everyday affair.

“ The only excitement noticeable was caused by one poor woman whose baby had been lost, though whether actually burnt or not one was not able to learn. This, even if true, seems to have been the only casualty. The greater number of Chilean houses in the poorer parts, where the fires are most frequent, are without altos (as the upper stories are called), so that escape is always easy and loss of life in these fires comparatively rare.”

CHAPTER XXXII

ART, LITERATURE, AND JOURNALISM IN CHILE

French Influence on Chilean Art—The Chilean Academy—Success of Chilean Artists at the Salon—Prevalence of English Names amongst Chilean Artists—Chilean Sculpture—Its Excellence—Journalism in Chile—"El Mercurio," the Times of South America—English Methods in Chilean Newspaper Offices—Efficient Methods of Journalism—The Harmsworth of Chile.

The littleness of the world has often been remarked upon, and most people will be surprised to learn that quite a number of the most sensational pictures which in recent years have appeared in the Paris Salon, are the products of Chilean artists.

Ever since the Independence of Chile, French art and literature have had a pronounced effect upon Chilean artistic aspirations. To-day Chilean art and sculpture is French in its ideality and methods. Already the young Republic has given birth to sons and daughters, whose work on canvas, stone, and bronze will be counted amongst the treasures of the world.

How many Americans are aware that the strikingly dramatic bronze statue of an Indian warrior in the Central Park, New York, entitled "The Last of the Mohicans," is the work of a great Chilean sculptor, Don Nicanor Plaza.

This statue, of which New York is so proud, is the replica of a statue of the great Araucanian chief and warrior, "Caupolican," which stands in Lota Park, within sight of busy coal fields and smelting works, a reminder of the distant days when savagery ruled supreme, in South Chile. Don Nicanor Plaza is one of the best known exhibitors at the Salon, and one of his works, "*Mal de Amor*," exhibited in 1903, was pronounced by competent critics to be one of the *chef d'œuvres* of the year.

Chile has a charm and beauty of landscape, which in its brilliant contrasts of colour is unique. In places the rocks of the Andes glow like flowers, and a voyage along

the coast reveals a panorama of ever changing beauty. Naturally, many Chilean artists have depicted the beauties of their native land. Señor Luco's pictures of Southern Chile are greatly esteemed for the fidelity with which the peculiar atmospheric effects and brilliant colouring are reproduced by the brush, and the sunset effects of Don Enrique Swinburn, a famous painter of the Cordilleras, are remarkable for the sense of colour, grandeur, and solitude they convey to the spectator.

Most of us have seen reproductions of that dramatic but *risqué* picture, "The Law of Honour," which created a great sensation, a few years back, when it was hung at the Salon.

The tense expression of stern determination on the husband's face, and the shrinking, horrified stare of the woman, haunt the memory. The painter of this work, Don Jean Eduardo Harris, is a Chilean of English ancestry, which seems to assert itself in another of his pictures, called "The Matinée," which is a study of a delighted and cosmopolitan crowd leaning over the foyer, and laughing at and applauding some popular play.

"Philip II. and The Grand Inquisitor of Spain" is another celebrated and powerful picture. Its painter, Don Pedro Lira, is one of Chile's leading artists. "Prometheus Unbound" is another magnificent specimen of his art.

The Gold Medal of the Paris Salon in 1900, was awarded to a work entitled "The Descent from the Cross," which caused a great deal of controversy at the period, owing to the Magdalene being depicted nude, and merely screened by her copper coloured hair. The artist was Don Virginio Arias, and art loving Chileans were naturally proud of his triumph. Guzman's "Death of Pedro Valdivia" is another dramatic and famous work; but it would take too long to enumerate all the really talented pictures and sculptures that have been produced by Chileans during the past half century.

A French artist, named Monvosin, was one of the origina-

tors of a Chilean School. His pupils prevailed upon the Chilean Government to endow in 1849, an Academy, which was placed under the control of an Italian artist, Alejandro Cicarelli.

Then an Academy of Sculpture and Architecture was founded, and eventually, in 1858, these various institutions were united into one Academy of Fine Arts.

It is curious how, in the realms of art, as in all other vocations, English names crop up constantly in Chile. We have already referred to Don Enrique Swinburn and Eduardo Harris as instances. Another famous Chilean caricaturist and landscape painter bears the name of Antonio Smith.

It is also not generally known that the celebrated Marine painter, T. Sommerscales, has made Chile his home for many years; and that the brilliancy of his colouring has been inspired by the blue sea and sky of the Western Pacific.

It is rare to find both father and son excelling in the same profession, but this is the case with the Señors Subercasseau. Señora Dona Rebecca Matte de Iniquez is perhaps the most talented of the many clever artists that have risen from the ranks of the Chilean ladies. San Martin's pictures are greatly esteemed, as well as those of Dons Arcos, Valenzuela, Errazuriz, and numerous other talented painters and rising black and white artists.

The influence of Spain and France upon Chilean literature is equally noticeable. No really great book, if we except V. Mackenna's historical works, has been written by a Chilean in recent times, but certain books, mostly romances of passion, have attracted wide attention both on the Continent and in South America. This is specially true of Señor Blest Gana, whose works have enormous sales. Other popular writers are Garcia Reyes, Vicuna, Amunategui, and Luis Orrego.

Some really high-class poetry has been written by Pedro, Gonzales, Lillo and Solar, within the last few years.

English ideas and English methods, however, predominate

ate throughout Chilean journalism. The leading paper of Chile, and, indeed, of South America, where it enjoys a reputation and influence similar to that of the *Times*, is *El Mercurio*. Some years before Lord Northcliffe's enterprise took the shape of publishing the *Daily Mail* simultaneously in London and Manchester, Don Agostino Edwards, the proprietor of *El Mercurio*, published simultaneously Valparaiso and Santiago editions. The *Mercurio* was originated by the grandfather of its present proprietor, an English settler, in 1827, and its career has been one of continuous prosperity.

In addition to *El Mercurio* a large number of papers are published by Señor Edwards, who has every claim to the title of the Harmsworth of South America. The offices of *El Mercurio* are the most palatial in Chile.

They possess a magnificent plant of the latest machinery, including fast colour machines, by means of which supplements to the weeklies, printed in colours, similar to the papers of New York, are printed, and the illustrated sections are equal in every respect to the leading journals of Europe or New York. Press photographers are despatched from this office to all parts of Chile, foreign news is cabled from all over the world, and a complete photo etching department exists, for the purpose of manufacturing, at a moment's notice, blocks of the photographs and drawings for reproduction in the paper.

The *Chilean Times* is the most important paper published in English on the west coast. It enjoys a large circulation, and in its news, make up, and illustrations, is everything that a paper should be.

El Sur, The South, is another important organ; and a comic paper, *El Chileno* enjoys an enormous sale. A glance at its illustrations and jokes show how greatly, though perhaps unconsciously, Chilean journalism has been influenced by English models.

CHAPTER XXXIII

STEAMSHIPS, BANKS AND COMMERCE

Development of Shipping in Chile—Company to Trade with India—Wheelwright the father of Chilean Shipping—The First Steam Ships—The Pacific Steam Navigation Company—The Royal Mail Company—Other Lines—German and Japanese Ships—English Shipping—Laws and Lighthouses—Government Subsidies—The Panama Canal—Government Schemes to Further Commerce—Trade of Chile—Manufactures—Wages—Banks.

The great length of the coast of Chile, with its numerous indentations and harbours, has given it advantages for the development of its shipping which no other country in South America can boast. This development has only taken place since the establishment of the Republic, when the ports for the first time were thrown open to the commerce of the world.

Ships of all nations soon began to arrive at Valparaiso, Talcapuano, and Coquimbo in ever increasing numbers. Between 1817 and 1825 upwards of 500 foreign vessels were cleared at Valparaiso, and in 1819 some wealthy Chileans formed a shipping company to trade direct with India. At that period there were about 40 sailing ships engaged in the coast trade, built and owned in Chile.

The father of Chilean shipping, was William Wheelwright an American engineer, and the pioneer of railways in Chile. He received from Congress, in 1835, a concession for ten years to carry on the coast traffic, by means of steamships. As a result he formed the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, in England, and on October 15th, 1840, two steamships the "Chile" and "Paru," cast anchor in Valparaiso harbour, and thus inaugurated steam navigation on the Western coast of the Pacific Ocean.

By 1853 four steamers were regularly sailing between Valparaiso and Callao, and, by degrees, the ports of Southern Chile were regularly visited, and commerce was

extended accordingly. Then, in 1867, a regular monthly service between Valparaiso and Liverpool was established via the Straits of Magellan; and the Pacific Steam Navigation Company, which some time ago was amalgamated with the Royal Mail Steamship Company, became one of the most important in the world.

The Chilean Government wisely fostered the development of this company by subsidies, which rendered it possible for the company to carry on its enterprises in its earlier stages.

Both the R.M.S.P. and the P.S.N.C. have served South America for well over half a century—in fact, ever since steam navigation began. The P.S.N.C. have provided steam vessels plying between Panama and the West Coast ports (run in connection with the R.M.S.P. West Indian Mail Service) since 1840, and have maintained a mail and passenger transatlantic service from Liverpool since 1868. The R.M.S.P. began a direct service to Brazil in 1851, with a branch connection to Buenos Aires. Soon the transatlantic steamers ran through to the River Plate, and the service was doubled.

Both Companies maintain magnificent fleets, their vessels yielding in luxury of equipment and smoothness of running to no steamers in the world. The famous "A" class (see the separate brochure "The 'A' Steamers of the R.M.S.P.") was started with the R.M.S.P. "Aragon," and the "Amazon," "Araguaya," "Avon" and "Asturias" have followed. A sixth vessel, the "Arlanza" (of 14,800 tons), made her maiden voyage in 1912.

The important *Compania Sud Americana de Vapores*, which owns a fleet of 21 steamships, worth upwards of £1,250,000, trade regularly along the Chilean coast, and has also a service of boats on the navigable rivers. This company is entirely owned by Chileans.

A German company, the "Kosmos" Line, carry on an important coast trade in the South Pacific, and conveys passengers from London to the Chilean ports at fares ranging from £15 to £50, and a regular service between

Punta Arenas and Valparaiso is maintained by the line of steamers owned by the well-known firm of Braun and Blanchard, of Punta Arenas.

At present there are a number of splendid steamships, fitted with all modern innovations, including wireless telegraphy, sailing regularly between Valparaiso and Liverpool, owned by the Royal Mail Steamship Company. Visitors to Chile who have the time usually travel by these magnificent boats, in order to enjoy the advantages of the long voyage and the wonderful scenery of the coast.

Other magnificent vessels belonging to the same company, also sail to Panama and the Eastern coast of South America, so passengers for Chile who desire to save time, usually sail by these vessels to Buenos Aires and then cross the Continent, by means of the Transandine Railway, a journey of 36 hours.

Forty-two steamships belonging to the *Compania Almanca de Vapores Kosmos* sail between Hamburg and the Pacific ports; and the West Coast Line, and the Merchant's Line, conduct a service of cargo boats between England and the Chilean ports.

It is the custom of steamship companies to observe some system in the naming of their ships. That of the important Lamport & Holt Line—which maintains regular sailings with the South American ports by steamships specially built for the purpose—is particularly interesting. The vessels are named after distinguished men who have won fame in the fields of literature, music and art. For example, the "Vasari" takes its name from Giorgio Vasari, the Florentine painter of the sixteenth century. The "Verdi" is named after the famous composer, whose music is often heard on board. And so on; one might mention the "Voltaire," which honours the philosopher of the French Revolution, and the "Tennyson" and "Byron," after the English poets. This method of naming the vessels is both unique and graceful.

The firm of F. W. Ritson, of Sunderland, have eight steamers, known as the Gulf Line, trading with Chile.

Recently, the Japanese Government has subsidised the Toyo Kisen Kaisha Steamship Line to trade between Japanese and Chilean ports, and the Roland and Lamport and Holt Lines have also a number of fine steamers engaged in the Chilean trade.

Visitors will do well to remember that the seasons in South America are the reverse of those in Europe and North America. The northern winter is the southern summer, and vice versa. The tourist will give attention, therefore, to the subject of proper clothing. Going in the fall or winter, he should be supplied with apparel appropriate to spring or summer. And if he makes his visits to Chile in the spring or summer, he will need warmer clothing for the cooler months southward.

Monetary transactions are simplified by carrying American or English gold currency, or being supplied with letters of credit.

The lion's share of the shipping trade of Chile falls to England, as proved by the following figures, which show the entries and clearances of all the ports in Chile in 1910 :

	TONS.			
English	24,720,000
German	11,997,000
Chilean	11,921,000

In the ten years ending 1910, the shipping industry of Chile showed an increase of no less than 133 per cent., a tribute to the great and inevitable growth of Chilean trade.

A very large number of sailing vessels are always in the Nitrate ports. They usually bring coal from England or Australia at low freight, and return laden with nitrate.

In Chilean ports, foreign owned vessels can carry on trade under the same conditions as native owned vessels. The only tax that is levied on shipping is a slight annual impost, to cover the cost of maintaining the fifty light-houses that guard the long Chilean coast-line. Foreign vessels can engage crews in Chile, and the consensus of opinion, amongst master mariners, is that the Chilean is an excellent and reliable seaman. The Pacific Steam Navi-

gation Company, now amalgamated with the Royal Mail Steamship Company, carries the Government mails to Europe, and receives a liberal subsidy from the Chilean Government.

The opening of the Panama Canal will give an enormous impetus to ships and shipping in the Chilean Ports, and the Chilean Government is now devising a scheme, to interest foreign companies and capitalists in the promotion of new steamship lines, to link up Chile with the Eastern ports of the U.S.A., Canada, and the Mediterranean countries. In 1910 the total coastwise trade of Chile amounted to £20,286,700.

The total commerce of Chile in 1910 amounted to £46,973,465, of which £22,311,427 represented imports and £24,662,038 exports.

According to the most recent statistics, it is estimated that there are in Chile, 5,321 manufactories and workshops, with an aggregate capital of £28,500,000. These employ 75,816 operatives who receive a total sum of £5,076,696 per annum in wages. The value of the total output of Chile's factories was estimated to be £38,444,100. Textile and clothing factories employ the greatest number, amounting to 13,400 workpeople; tanning and boot-making employ nearly as many; the manufacture of food stuffs employ 12,000 men and women, woodwork and furniture 9,200. Engineering and metal works employ about 7,000 men and boys.

Needless to say the banking industry is highly developed in Chile. There are twenty-four national banks, that are authorised to issue notes, a large number of local, and branches of English and foreign banks.

The Anglo-South American Bank has branches in all the Chief towns of Chile, and the London and River Plate Bank is at Valparaiso. German and French banks are well supported.

The principal Chilean banks are the Banco de Chile, Banco Español de Chile, Banco Santiago, Banco Nacional, and Banco de la Republica, with a total capital of about

£50,000,000 between them. The balances of the various Chilean banks average on any given day £65,556,061.

Only those in touch with Chilean and South American affairs have any idea of the manner in which banking has grown in importance of late years. Take the Anglo-South American Bank, Ltd., for instance, as an example of rapid development. It was established in 1888, at a time when Colonel North with his nitrate properties was dazzling the City. The Bank of Tarapaca and London was brought out as the bank which should serve that particular industry. In consequence its branches were limited to Valparaiso, Iquique and Pisagua, and out of an authorised capital of a million, £500,000 was paid up. There was eager competition to obtain the shares, which for a time went to a high premium; but, as a nitrate bank, its business was naturally confined within narrow channels, and for a number of years the dividends were not upon a scale suitable for a bank working in foreign parts. To a certain extent its affairs were adversely influenced by political troubles in Chili, as the bitter and sanguinary contests between President Balmaceda and the Constitutionalist disturbed business in the country to a great extent, and it was not until 1895 that the bank began to extend beyond the nitrate districts. In that year it opened branches at Santiago, the capital of Chili, and Punta Arenas, and in subsequent years offices were opened at Antofagasta, Concepcion and Puerto Gallegos. A most important step, however, was taken by the bank in 1900, when it was agreed to amalgamate with the Anglo-Argentine Bank under the title of the Bank of Tarapaca and Argentina. The Argentine Bank had offices at Buenos Ayres and Monte Video, and in order to carry out the combination the authorised capital was increased to £1,500,000, and the paid-up capital to £750,000. The whole of the new shares went to the absorbed bank, and £35,000 was added to the reserve of the combined institution. In the same year the bank opened branches at Mendoza, Copiapo, Coquimbo, La Serena and Chillan. In 1902 it lost by death its managing director, Mr. John

Dawson, who had held that position since the inception of the bank. He was a gentleman thoroughly conversant with business in the nitrate districts, and accordingly he worked the institution very much upon those lines, but his successor, Mr. R. J. Hose, has developed the business of the bank into a far wider sphere. Not only has he spread the influence of the bank over the greater part of South America, but he has linked up its business with Europe generally, and with the United States. Indeed, finding at the time he joined the bank that the institution was a purely local one, he has steadily set his face to make it one of international importance, and this aim has in a great measure been accomplished. Following the amalgamation with the Argentine Bank a branch was opened at Bahia Blanca and one office in Bolivia, whilst in Europe an office was created at Hamburg, and close relations with French financial institutions were also established. In 1907 an agency was opened at New York. Thus in about twelve years the bank converted itself from a merely local institution, having only three offices, to one having sixteen offices in South America, two in Europe, and one in New York. Such is the rapidity with which business grows in the Country of Promise, Chile.

CHAPTER XXXIV

THE LABOUR PROBLEM IN CHILE

Why Wages show a Tendency to Increase—Influence of the Argentine Demand for Harvest Labour—The Chilean Miner—His Pay, Hours of Labour and Social Conditions—Drunkenness His Curse—The Nitrate Workers—Conditions of Labour on the Nitrate Fields—Payment in Tokens—Gamblers—Generous Treatment of Workmen—The Probable Future of the Chilean Workman.

The labour question on the Nitrate fields just now is a burning one, concerning which a great deal of difference of opinion prevails. The workmen are constantly agitating for higher wages, and owing to the persistent refusal of the Chileans to work side by side with labourers imported from Peru and Bolivia, many of the oficinas at times experience a dearth of workmen.

To remedy this the proprietors have established recruiting stations, in the middle and south of Chile; but they find that many economic causes are at work, which must have the tendency to send wages steadily upwards, unless some extremely unlikely event, such as a great emigration of Southern Europeans, took place.

Every year, the demand for labour, during the harvest in Argentina, attracts numbers of workmen; and those concerned in the development of the southern coal fields and the construction of the Longitudinal and Transandine Railways, the harbour works at Valparaiso, and other enterprises, are combining to render more realisable the Chileno's demand for higher wages and better conditions of labour,

For these reasons the task of procuring workmen, for the nitrate fields of Tarapaca is one of increasing difficulty; so that in Chile it may be said with truth, that there are no able bodied unemployed, unless through their own desire.

Miners and nitrate workers in Chile receive from 5 to 6 currency dollars per day. On the coal fields of the South, the miners work from ten to twelve hours daily, in many collieries, seven days a week. In spite of their arduous toil they are strong, lusty fellows, and by their gaiety and animal spirits, impress visitors who see them above ground.

This trait, however, is common to our own pitworkers of the North of England and Scotland, and it is due to the exuberance of spirits, which almost resembles a partial intoxication, produced by breathing fresh air, and revelling in sunshine, after being confined for many hours, in the oppressive atmosphere and blackness of the mine.

That the men maintain their health is due to the numerous Church festas which are observed as holidays, and counterbalance the ill effects of the long hours they work ; also to the fact that great numbers of them leave the mines annually, and work along with their wives in the harvest fields of Argentina, a custom that is as beneficial to them, as the exodus to the hop-fields of Kent is to the slum dwellers of East and South London.

A great deal is done for the men by the various companies. They are provided with wooden houses, rent free, and they receive a present of a ton of coal, practically whenever they need it.

Medical attendance is also free, and if the parents so choose, their children can receive a first-class education, gratis.

Wages are paid on the last Saturday of each month, and pay day is unfortunately signalled by a debauch of drunkenness.

Up to a few years ago, the drunkenness of the Chileno miner, on his pay day, was truly formidable. He drank a vile, raw spirit that was manufactured in Valdivia, and it was as rapidly destroying his morale and vitality, as it did those of his Indian ancestors. In 1902 the Government passed an Act, which virtually crippled the trade in this death-dealing stuff. A duty of 85 per cent. was put on

grain spirit, and 40 per cent. on brandy distilled from the grape, thus rendering its price almost prohibitive to the working man.

Since then the consumption of the excellent light beer of Valdivia, and of the native wines, have increased amongst the colliers, with the result that fierce drunkenness is diminishing, and there is a gratifying reduction in the number of savage assaults and murders.

Trade Unionism is becoming very powerful all over Chile. At present, many abuses, such as intimidation, threats, assaults and even murders, have been ascribed to its development.

People, however, who deplore these excesses, and who regard the Chileno as having a double dose of original sin in his composition, should remember that, seventy or eighty years ago in this country, our working-class passed through a similar travail, and that the amelioration of their conditions by higher wages, shorter hours, opportunities for education and recreation of a reasonable nature, along with the knowledge that strong trades unions could obtain concessions, without recourse to illegality or violence, all combined to make the British workman the comparatively satisfactory citizen he is to-day.

These influences are at work in Chile, and there can be no doubt that the excellent Government, acting in harmony with the natural genius and intelligence of the masses of the Chilean people, will soon succeed in sweeping away most of the evils which, due in most instances to extraneous causes, are hindering the progress of the country.

Life on the Nitrate fields, for the majority of the workers, who naturally take no interest in their extraordinary surroundings, is monotonous and dull in the extreme.

Day and night shifts of men work continuously, the caliche that is extracted during the day being carted at night, the rates of pay ranging from five to six currency dollars per day of twelve hours.

Each oficina maintains a general shop or store, where all the requirements of the workmen and their families

must be purchased, as there is no other emporium available for miles. Usually goods are sold at cost price, but labour agitators have told us of oficinas, where, on account of the threat of a strike, wages had been advanced 10 per cent., that provisions immediately rose 15 per cent. in cost. Bodegas, or what we would call refreshment bars, are also a feature of the oficinas, and it is regrettable that the Chileno's principal vice flourishes in the nitrate fields, where it would be so easy to enforce sobriety. Owing to the absence of shops, save the one attached to the oficina, money is unnecessary to the workpeople, as it is to the crew of a ship in mid ocean. In consequence they are usually paid with aluminium tokens, stamped with the name of the company and the currency value they represent. They are commonly called "features," and are accepted in lieu of currency at the company's store, for provisions, clothes, or other necessaries.

The existence of professional gamblers is another great evil on the nitrate fields. They visit the various oficinas, in much the same way as their confreres do the mines in the "wild and woolly" west of the United States, and frequently clear out the workmen of every "feature" they possess.

In Iquique, Antofagasta and the nitrate ports, if the company's credit is good, these "features" are accepted as readily as currency, although, should money, instead of goods, be required, a charge of 25 per cent. for discounting them is made.

The Chilean Government recently passed an Act compelling the nitrate companies to pay the face value of "features" in currency to *bona fide* holders on demand, so that any disposition on the part of unscrupulous proprietors, to institute a similar system to that which prevailed in this country prior to the passing of the Truck Acts, is happily rendered impossible.

There is no denying the fact, that the lower class Chilean is unaware of and indifferent to the benefits of cleanliness. Thus there is a fear that, as factories and mines grow, and

towns gather around them, dreadful slum conditions will arise. To obviate this peril is a duty which the Government must not neglect to take in hand. Already the influence of Englishmen and of educated Chileans, is making itself felt in raising the standard of life amongst the masses.

That, and the removal of drunkenness and gambling, are the great social works that await Chile to-morrow.

CHAPTER XXXV

Chile's Future and Mission—Chile's Continuous Progress—The Stability of Her Government—Honesty of Her Finance—Her Tendency Towards Arbitration—King Edward and King George Invited to Arbitrate—Alonso's Statue of Christ—The Inscription—Monsenor Jara's Prophecy of Peace.

The Twentieth Century, in all probability, will be known to future students of South American history, as "Chile's Century," on account of the astonishing progress, in every direction and sphere of human activity that this go-a-head Republic will surely achieve, and to which the Panama Canal will give such an enormous impetus. In the Nineteenth Century, she established liberty, extended her territory, and rendered herself impregnable, owing to the valour and discipline of her sons, and to the fitness of her fleet against foreign aggression.

Throughout the long period of stress and storm that heralded the birth of the young Republic, when she had to wage fierce war, not only against her enemies on land and sea, but against such dreadful internal foes, as ignorance and superstition, the result of centuries of misrule, Chile has never once neglected to pursue her course of social and educational progress.

She has fostered science and art, developed her railways, telegraphs and ports along that narrow strip of land by the Pacific Ocean, far, even then, from the customary resorts of men of commerce, and she has done so in a manner that has evoked the esteem and admiration of the world.

During all this period, her finance has been honest, every liability the Chilean State has incurred has been met, and her Government has been stable.

Most people foolishly imagine, that revolutions are of every day occurrence in Chile. The facts are that, from 1830 till to-day, there have only been two revolutions—one in 1851, and another in 1890. Most other nations have

surpassed Chile, in the number of their revolutionary movements.

Honesty has always been the keynote of Chilean administration. In the course of Chile's history, there is not an instance of a President, or Minister, being even accused of the conversion of public funds. Even after the Civil War of 1890, when President Balmaceda's party was defeated, the victors, when they took possession of the Government house and archives, found there was not a single account or payment that was not audited, nor one that could have been made, in the slightest degree, a reproach to the fallen Government. Not a single high official, during the Civil War, made personal profit at the expense of his country.

Chile, whose first Act as an independent State, was to abolish slavery, gave the world an example of religious toleration, and showed a desire to break down the barriers of class, racial, and religious prejudice, at a period when many countries of Europe were hot-beds of Tyranny. There were many who predicted that, thanks to the admixture of races in Chile, the warlike tendencies of both Spaniard and Araucanian would assert themselves, and that Chile, as she became strong, would become a firebrand to the other Republics of South America.

These prognostications have fortunately been falsified. Chile to-day stands in the enviable position of being the guarantor of peace, for the neighbouring Republics of the Southern Continent.

It was Chile who availed herself of the ever ready services of our late King Edward, the Peace-maker, to secure a treaty of perpetual amity with her neighbouring Republic. It was Chile that recently submitted her dispute with the nitrate claimants to King George for arbitration !

It has been said, that the first object that strikes the eye of the traveller as he approaches New York harbour, is Bertholdi's colossal statue of "Liberty," which bids him shake off the trammels and traditions of Europe, and enter into the free life of the New World.

The first great object that impresses the eye of the traveller and appeals to his heart as well, as he reaches the summit of the mighty mountain pass that divides Argentina from Chile, is the colossal statue of Christ, with His arms outstretched, blessing the two Republics and South America.

Nearly fifteen thousand feet above the level of the sea stands this colossal statue, the work of the great Argentine sculptor, Alonso. It was cast from cannon, captured in the wars, and erected as a perpetual token of amity between the nations. The statue of the Prince of Peace stands on the summit of the pass, that, centuries ago, was trodden by the hosts of the Incas, the Conquistadores, and the armies of San Martin.

An inscription on the pedestal reads: "Sooner shall these mountains crumble to dust, than Argentines and Chileans break the peace, which at the feet of Christ the Redeemer they have sworn to maintain."

Those who have "eyes to see" must realise that this event is of more than sentimental significance to the people of South America, and men of all nations will trust that the dedication of the Bishop of Aucud, Monseñor Jara, was truly prophetic of the future of Chile, when he uttered the noble words at the unveiling of the statue. "Not only to Argentina and Chile do we dedicate this monument, but to the world, that from this it may learn its lesson of universal peace."

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